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ABSTRACT

Published periodically by the Women's Bureau of the United States Department of Labor, this handbook assembles factual information covering the participation and characteristics of women in the labor force, the patterns of their employment, occupations, income and earnings, education and training, and the federal and state laws affecting their employment and civil and political status. Designed as a ready source of reference, major sections are: (1) Women in the Labor Force, (2) Laws Governing Women's Employment and Status, (3) Commissions on the Status of Women, (4) Organizations of Interest to Women, and (5) Bibliography on American Women Workers. An earlier edition is available as ED 014 568. (SB)

1969

HANDBOOK on WOMEN WORKERS

WOMEN'S BUREAU
BULLETIN 294

Wage and Labor Standards Administration
UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR

1969 HANDBOOK ON WOMEN WORKERS

AN ACT TO ESTABLISH IN THE DEPARTMENT OF LABOR A BUREAU TO BE KNOWN AS

THE WOMEN'S BUREAU

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That there shall be established in the Department of Labor a bureau to be known as the Women's Bureau.

SEC. 2. That the said bureau shall be in charge of a director, a woman, to be appointed by the President, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, who shall receive an annual compensation of $5,000.[1] It shall be the duty of said bureau to formulate standards and policies which shall promote the welfare of wage-earning women, improve their working conditions, increase their efficiency, and advance their opportunities for profitable employment. The said bureau shall have authority to investigate and report to the said department upon all matters pertaining to the welfare of women in industry. The director of said bureau may from time to time publish the results of these investigations in such a manner and to such extent as the Secretary of Labor may prescribe.

SEC. 3. That there shall be in said bureau an assistant director, to be appointed by the Secretary of Labor, who shall receive an annual compensation of $3,500 [1] and shall perform such duties as shall be prescribed by the director and approved by the Secretary of Labor.

SEC. 4. That there is hereby authorized to be employed by said bureau a chief clerk and such special agents, assistants, clerks, and other employees at such rates of compensation and in such numbers as Congress may from time to time provide by appropriations.

SEC. 5. That the Secretary of Labor is hereby directed to furnish sufficient quarters, office furniture, and equipment for the work of this bureau.

SEC. 6. That this act shall take effect and be in force from and after its passage.

Approved June 5, 1920.

Public Law No. 259, 66th Congress (H.R. 13229).

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[1] Amount increased by Reclassification Act of March 4, 1923, as amended and supplemented.

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1969 HANDBOOK on WOMEN WORKERS

Women's Bureau
Bulletin 294

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
George P. Shultz, *Secretary*

Wage and Labor Standards Administration
Arthur A. Fletcher, *Administrator*

WOMEN'S BUREAU
Elizabeth Duncan Koontz, *Director*
1969

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Most intangible, but by no means least telling, of recent changes is one in the general attitude toward women's participation in the various aspects of American society. It is a change which includes the attitudes of men toward accepting women as colleagues and employees, the attitudes of both toward the creation of a society whose aim is the well-being of people—not of men alone or of women apart—a society of diverse talents used to their fullest.

American Women 1963–1968
Report of the Interdepartmental Committee
on the Status of Women

United States Government Printing Office, Washington: 1969

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FOREWORD

This handbook on American women workers is published periodically by the Women's Bureau of the U.S. Department of Labor. The handbook assembles factual information covering the participation and characteristics of women in the labor force, the patterns of their employment, their occupations, their income and earnings, their education and training, and the Federal and State laws affecting the employment and the civil and political status of women.

The handbook is designed as a ready source of reference. Part I deals with women in the labor force; Part II is concerned with the laws governing women's employment and status; Part III tells about the Interdepartmental Committee, the Citizens' Advisory Council, and the State commissions on the status of women; Part IV lists organizations of interest to women; and Part V consists of a selected bibliography on American women workers.

This 1969 edition includes information that has become available since 1965. Knowledge about the work women do, the circumstances of their working, and the direction of changes in their work is essential—if society is to make maximum use of the potential of women as a human resource and if women themselves are to take advantage of the greater opportunities now available to them.

Elizabeth Duncan Koontz
Director, Women's Bureau

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The Women's Bureau also wishes to thank the many private organizations and individuals without whose cooperation the information given in this handbook would be less complete.

The handbook was prepared under the general direction of Isabelle S. Streidl.

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Because of rounding, details in the statistical tables do not necessarily add to the totals. The word "average" refers to an arithmetical mean.

The information in this handbook is based upon the latest figures available when released to press.

Part I

Women in the Labor Force

HIGHLIGHTS

EMPLOYMENT IN 1968

Number—Over 29 million women are in the labor force.

This is 42 percent of all women of working age.

Women are 37 percent of the labor force.

Age—Half of the women workers are 40 years of age or over.

Almost two-fifths are 45 years or older.

More than half of all women are in the labor force in the following age groups: 18 and 19 years, 20 to 24 years, and 45 to 54 years.

Marital Status—Almost 3 out of 5 women workers are married (husband present).

Of all married women (husband present) in the population, 37 percent are working.

Family Status—About 10.6 million mothers with children under 18 years of age are working, of whom 4.1 million have children under 6 years.

Working mothers are 38 percent of all women in the labor force.

Employment Patterns—About 42 percent of all women workers work full time the year round.

Almost 30 percent work part time the year round or part of the year.

Occupations—About 34 percent of all employed women are clerical workers.

They include 3.3 million stenographers, typists, and secretaries.

Sixteen percent are service workers (except private household).

Fifteen percent are operatives, chiefly in factories.

Almost 15 percent are professional and technical workers. They include 1.7 million teachers.

INCOME IN 1966

Median Income in 1966—$4,026 was received by year-round full-time women workers; $1,638, by all women with income.

EDUCATION IN 1966–68

School and College Enrollment—There were over 26 million girls and women between 5 and 34 years of age enrolled in school in the fall of 1966. The 2.8 million college women were two-fifths of all college students in the fall of 1967.

Education Completed—About 297,000 women earned college degrees in 1966–67. A total of 2.9 million women workers have a college degree, according to a March 1968 study. About 12.2 million women workers are at least high school graduates (no college), and 3.4 million have some college education (no degree).

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WOMEN AS WORKERS

Toward Economic Equality and Opportunity

Womanpower is one of our country's greatest resources. Women's skills and abilities are being used more fully and more creatively than ever before—in the home, in the community, and on the job.

Since 1940 American women have been responsible for the major share in the growth of the labor force. They accounted for about 65 percent of the total increase from 1940 to 1968, and their representation in the labor force has risen from one-fourth to almost two-fifths of all workers.

The growing contribution made by women to the economic life of the country has developed largely as a result of many social and economic changes of the last 28 years. Women have been freed for work outside the home by scientific and technological advances that have simplified home chores. The growth of new industries in a dynamic economy and expanded activities in others, as in commerce and trade, have opened new doors for women in business, the professions, and the production of goods and services.

The increased demand for women as workers has been accompanied by broadened opportunities for their education and by girls' and women's increasing awareness of the need for more training. The great emphasis in recent years on completion of high school, on occupational training, on university education, and on continuing education for mature women has encouraged women to seek better preparation for jobs. This has facilitated their integration into the working world.

Women have made significant progress in the last few years and have found many new doors opened to them. Many of these gains can be credited to the President's Commission on the Status of Women, established in 1961.[1] The Commission studied the role of women in American life, examined their needs, and evaluated their potential contribution to the country's economic, social, and

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[1] See Part III for additional information on the President's Commission on the Status of Women and developments stemming from this Commission.

political development. The Commission's report, *American Women,* contained many far-reaching recommendations that envisioned full partnership for women in the affairs of the Nation. At the Federal level the Interdepartmental Committee and the Citizens' Advisory Council on the Status of Women have followed through on the work of the original Commission.

In addition, commissions on the status of women established in each of the 50 States, the District of Columbia, Puerto Rico, the Virgin Islands, and two municipalities have not only made full recognition and utilization of the Nation's womanpower a matter of wide concern but also have achieved many gains for women. In all areas greater interest has been aroused in the need to educate, counsel, and train women for their responsibilities as homemakers, mothers, and workers.

Women are promised equality and greater economic opportunity under Government programs that mark the beginning of a new national effort to eradicate discrimination based on sex, race, and age. The Civil Rights Act of 1964 is of particular interest to women, since its employment provisions prohibit discrimination in employment on the basis of sex as well as race, color, religion, or national origin. The Equal Pay Act of 1963, which became effective in 1964, promises better wage protection for women by prohibiting wage discrimination on the basis of sex. Job discrimination against either men or women workers 40 to 65 years of age is prohibited by the Age Discrimination in Employment Act of 1967. This act, like the two just mentioned, covers establishments engaged in interstate commerce. In addition, Executive orders require equal employment opportunity regardless of race, creed, color, national origin, sex, or age—in Government employment and in employment by Federal contractors and under federally assisted construction.

The Economic Opportunity Act of 1964 commits the Nation to remove the causes and consequences of poverty.[2] The act affects women as it does men. It is designed to help develop the potentialities of the most severely disadvantaged of our people, many of whom are women. A society that aspires toward greatness must make use of every individual's talents and abilities, and it must give each and every one the opportunity to participate fully in the social and economic life of the country.

1. Predominant Work Patterns

The social, economic, and cultural factors that have led to these important milestones have been at work for decades shaping new patterns for women's lives. One of these factors is greater longevity, especially for women. The baby girl born in 1900 had a life expectancy of only 48 years, but the baby girl born in 1966 can expect to live, on the average, to the age of nearly 74 years. The factors that have extended the lifespan have reduced the incidence of disease and have given women greater vitality for fuller enjoyment of their added years.

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[2] Some programs of this act are discussed in sections 93 and 94.

Women are marrying young today—half of them marry by age 20.6, and more marry at age 18 than at any other age. About 9 out of 10 women work outside the home some time during their lives, whether they marry or not. But marriage and the presence of children tend to curtail their employment, while widowhood, divorce, and the decrease of family responsibilities tend to attract them back into the work force. As indicated from statistics on women's characteristics and from a special study on worklife expectancy,[3] several major work patterns are found to exist among women.

For women who remain single, the work pattern is relatively simple and bears a strong resemblance to that for men. Women in this group, which includes about one-tenth of all women, work most of their lives. Those who enter the labor force by age 20 and remain unmarried will probably continue to work for about 45 years—slightly more than the 43-year average for men. These single women workers at the age of 35 can expect, on the average, to be on the job another 31 years—2.6 years more than the average man of 35.

Women who marry, do not have children, and remain married (about one-tenth of all married women), if they enter the labor force by age 20, have a worklife expectancy of 35 years—10 years less than single women. At age 35, these married women have an average of 24 more working years (about 7 years less than single women). Whereas most single women must depend on their own earnings for support, women with husbands are in a better position to stop work when they have minor disabilities or for other reasons.

The length of the average working life for the large group of married women with children is more difficult to estimate because of the intermittent nature of their work careers. Like other women, typically they start to work immediately after finishing high school—generally when they are 17 or 18 years old. After a few years, often they quit work to get married and have children.

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[3] U.S. Department of Labor, Manpower Administration: "Work Life Expectancy and Training Needs of Women." Manpower Report No. 12. May 1967.

Since the current tendency is for women to marry and have children at a younger age than formerly, the average woman has borne her last child at about age 30 and is in her midthirties when all her children are in school and her family responsibilities considerably decreased. Stimulated by such factors as economic pressures, lighter housekeeping tasks, and better job opportunities, those who return to the labor force generally have been out for about 8 to 10 years. If they reenter when they are 35 years of age and have no more children, they can expect to average another 24 years of work.

The expected worklife of a woman with children diminishes with the more children she has and the later she has the last child. For example, a woman marrying at age 20 has a worklife expectancy of 25 years if she has just one child, 22 years if she has two children, 20 years if she has three children, and 17 years if she has four or more children.

After losing their husbands, a relatively large percentage of widowed, divorced, or separated women return to the labor force. After age 30, the length of time these women can expect to remain in the work force is slightly less than for single women but longer than for married women. Women workers who at age 35 are widowed, separated, or divorced can anticipate another 28 years at work—about one-half year less than the average man.

Whether or not a particular woman will look for employment depends on various economic, social, and psychological factors at the time in her life when she is making her decision. But financial reasons are usually the strongest motivation for most women. It can be assumed, of course, that economic necessity is the overriding reason for employment among women who have to support themselves, among women who have to support dependents without help of a husband, among working mothers of young children, and among wives whose husbands have inadequate or no income.

An investigation into the reasons why married women become part of the labor force was made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics in February 1964.[4] This survey revealed that married women constituted about two-thirds of the 1.2 million women 18 to 64 years old who entered into employment in 1963. About half of the married women gave economic necessity as their major reason for taking a job. These wives worked to supplement inadequate family income; to help pay for a home, medical treatment, or their children's education; or to raise the family's standard of living in general.

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[4] U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Special Labor Force Report No. 59.

Financial remuneration is, however, not the sole reason why so many women are in the labor force. About one-fifth of the married women questioned in the Bureau of Labor Statistics survey indicated that their interest in employment was social or psychological in nature, and almost another fifth said they wanted to earn extra money. It is significant that the more education a woman acquires, the more likely she is to seek paid employment, irrespective of her financial status. The educated woman desires to contribute her skills and talents to the economy not only for the financial rewards, but even more to reap the psychic rewards that come from achievement and recognition and service to society.

Numbers and Trends

2. Twenty-nine Million Women Workers

About 29.2 million women were in the labor force in 1968. This figure exceeds by about 9 million the wartime employment peak reached in July 1944 during World War II, when there were around 20 million women workers 16 years of age and over. It compares with about 5 million at the turn of the century and with the prewar figure of slightly less than 14 million in 1940 (table 1).

There has been a striking advance in this century in the proportion of women in the work force. In 1900 women were only 18 percent of all workers; in 1940, about 25 percent. The proportion reached a high of 36 percent during World War II and then dropped sharply to 28 percent with the return of male veterans to civilian jobs, before starting to climb again. Today 37 percent of all workers are women.

The remarkable rise in the numbers and proportions of women in the labor force is due to a combination of demographic, economic, and social developments. Among demographic factors, the most important were the overall increase in population and the changed ratio of women to men in the population, resulting from the greater longevity of women. Economic and social factors included (1) the increasing demand for labor as the industrial structure of employment shifted job growth from agriculture to goods-producing activities to services and (2) the resultant trend toward urban living. To these factors were added more recently the widespread use of laborsaving equipment in the home, rising aspirations toward a higher standard of living and a higher level of education, and increased job opportunities for women in rapidly expanding clerical, service, and sales occupations. Finally, an evolution in social attitudes and values encouraged women to develop their abilities and talents to the fullest in paid work.

Table 1.—WOMEN IN THE LABOR FORCE, SELECTED YEARS, 1890–1968

(Women 16 years of age and over)

Date	Number	As percent of all workers	As percent of woman population
HIGHLIGHTS[1]			
1968 (annual average)	29,204,000	37.1	41.6
April 1968	28,697,000	37.0	41.0
Midsixties (April 1965)	25,831,000	35.0	38.8
Start of the sixties (April 1960)	22,985,000	33.3	37.4
Midfifties (April 1955)	19,987,000	31.2	34.8
Korean conflict (April 1953)	19,116,000	30.6	34.0
Pre-Korean conflict (April 1950)	17,882,000	29.1	33.0
Post-World War II (April 1947)	16,150,000	27.6	30.9
World War II (April 1945)	19,290,000	36.1	38.1
Pre-World War II (March 1940)	13,783,000	25.4	28.9
LONG-TERM TRENDS[2]			
1930 (April)	10,396,000	21.9	23.6
1920 (January)	8,229,000	20.4	22.7
1900 (June)	4,999,000	18.1	20.0
1890 (June)	3,704,000	17.0	18.2

[1] Civilian labor force.

[2] Decennial census figures cover those 14 years of age and over in the total labor force.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Employment and Earnings, May 1960, 1965, and 1968, and January 1969. U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census: Annual Report on the Labor Force, 1940–55. Social Science Research Council: "Labor Force in the United States, 1890–1960." 1948.

Between 1900 and 1968 the female population 16 years of age and over increased nearly threefold. During the same period the ratio of men to women in the population changed considerably. In 1900 men outnumbered women by more than 1.3 million, but today there are almost 5 million more women than men of working age (16 years and over). The female labor force increased almost sixfold during this period. The percentage of women workers among all women of working age advanced from 20 percent in 1900 to 29 percent in 1940 and to 42 percent in 1968.

3. *Nonwhite Women in the Labor Force*

The civilian labor force in 1968 included 3.8 million nonwhite women. They represented 13 percent of the civilian woman labor force and 43 percent of all nonwhite workers. More than 90 percent of nonwhite women in the population in 1960 were Negro according to the decennial Census of Population, but the geographical distribution of Negro women ranged from less than 10 percent of all nonwhite women in some Western States to almost 100 percent in some Southern States.[5]

4. Employment and Unemployment

About 27.8 million women were employed in 1968, and an additional 38,000 were in the Armed Forces (table 2).

Unemployed women—those seeking work—numbered 1.4 million. This means that there were about 20 women who had jobs for every woman who was unemployed. While 37 percent of all workers were women, 50 percent of all unemployed persons were women.

Table 2.—EMPLOYMENT STATUS OF WOMEN AND MEN, 1968[1]

(Persons 16 years of age and over)

Employment status	Women		Men	
	Number	Percent distribution	Number	Percent distribution
Population	70,218,000	100.0	65,345,000	100.0
In labor force	29,242,000	41.6	53,030,000	81.2
Civilian labor force	29,204,000	41.6	49,533,000	75.8
Employed	27,807,000	39.6	48,114,000	73.6
Unemployed	1,397,000	2.0	1,419,000	2.2
Armed Forces	38,000	.1	3,497,000	5.4
Not in the labor force	40,976,000	58.4	12,315,000	18.8
Keeping house	35,023,000	49.9	180,000	.3
In school	3,408,000	4.9	3,492,000	5.3
Other[2]	2,544,000	3.6	8,643,000	13.2

[1] Annual average.

[2] Includes 839,000 (1.2 percent) women and 1,425,000 (2.2 percent) men unable to work.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Employment and Earnings, January 1969.

The unemployment rate has been higher for women than for men in recent years, and the gap between the two rates has been widening. Following the recession of 1960–61 and the high unemployment rates prevailing in 1961 (7.2 percent for women and 6.4 percent for men), the rates for both women and men declined, but the employment situation did not improve for women as much as it did for men. Women's unemployment remained fairly high at

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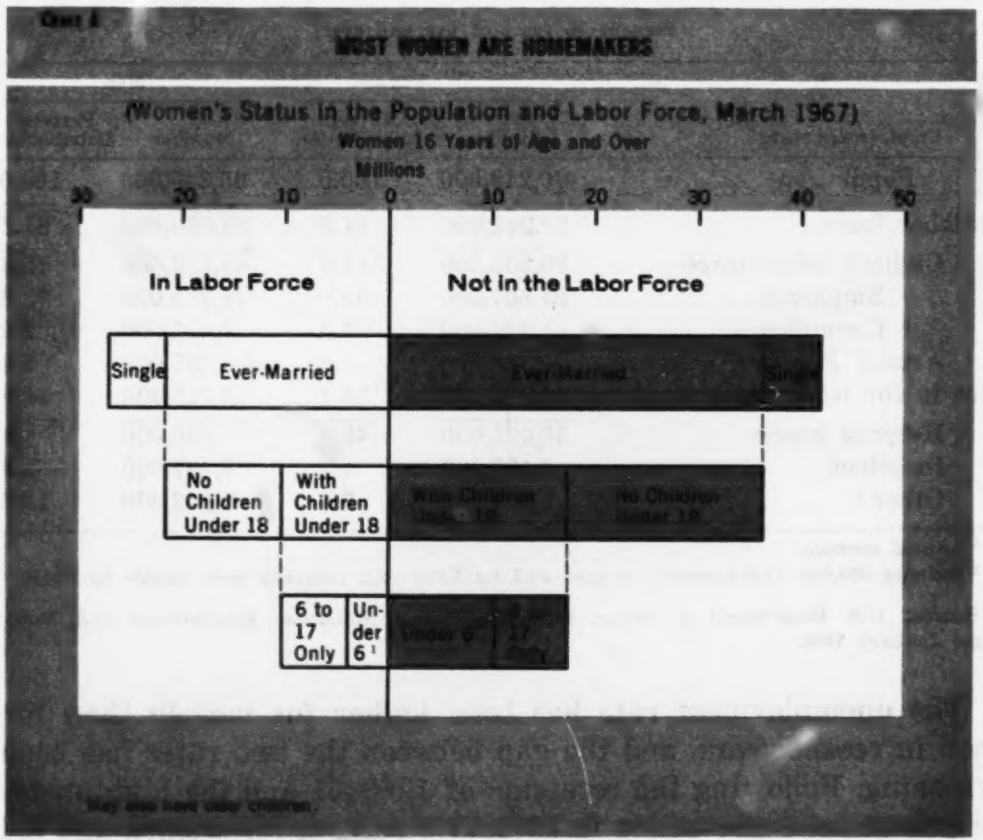
[5] For detailed information on Negro women in the labor force, see "Negro Women in the Population and in the Labor Force." Women's Bureau, Wage and Labor Standards Administration, U.S. Department of Labor. December 1967.

4.8 percent for 1968, while the rate for men dropped to 2.9 percent. (For more details on women's unemployment, see sec. 36.)

5. Most Women Are Homemakers

The majority of women continue to be homemakers, whether or not they also have jobs (chart A). In 1968, 41 million women were not in the labor force, and 35 million of these devoted their full time to housekeeping. Almost two-fifths of all married women and many single women as well are both homemakers and workers. During an average workweek in 1968, 50 percent of all women were keeping house full time, and about 42 percent were either full- or part-time workers. Most of the remainder were girls 16 to 20 years of age who were in school.



Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

6. Geographical Distribution of Women Workers

Geographically, women in the labor force are concentrated most heavily in the Middle Atlantic and North Central States and

in California and Texas (chart B). Six States each had over a million women in the labor force in 1960, according to the decennial Census of Population. These States, in descending order of the number of women workers, were New York, California, Pennsylvania, Illinois, Ohio, and Texas.

A comparison of 1950 and 1960 decennial censuses shows a slight shift in the geographical distribution of women workers from Northeast and North Central States to the South and the West.[6] These changes reflect population migration patterns and, related to these, the movement of industry into the South and the West.

Women's representation in the labor force varies considerably throughout the country. According to the 1960 census, the highest percentages of women among all workers were found in the urban District of Columbia (44 percent) and in New Hampshire (36 percent). The lowest ratios of women to all workers were found in North Dakota (27 percent) and Alaska (24 percent). These percentages are related to the ratio of women to men in the population and to the existence of industries that employ relatively large numbers of women.

The percentage of women workers among all women 14 years of age and over in the population (the labor force participation rate) was between 32 and 36 percent in a majority of the States in 1960. It was highest in the District of Columbia (52 percent), followed by Nevada (41 percent) and Alaska, Hawaii, and New Hampshire (40 percent each); it was lowest in Kentucky (27 percent) and West Virginia (24 percent). These variations in labor force participation rates are related to the availability of jobs as well as to family tradition, local customs, and social attitudes.

Most Negro women in the labor force live in the South. States with the largest number in 1960 were Texas, Georgia, Florida, North Carolina, Alabama, and Louisiana. Outside the South those with the largest number were New York, Illinois, Pennsylvania, and California. Negro women constituted more than 90 percent of all nonwhite women workers in a majority of the States in 1960. In most Western States, however, their representation among nonwhite women wohkers was lower, ranging from less than 1 percent in Hawaii to 82 percent in Colorado.

Labor force participation rates of Negro women are traditionally high. Among States with at least 1,000 Negro women in the population in 1960, the percentage who were in the labor force was highest in Alaska (59 percent), followed by Nevada (54 per-

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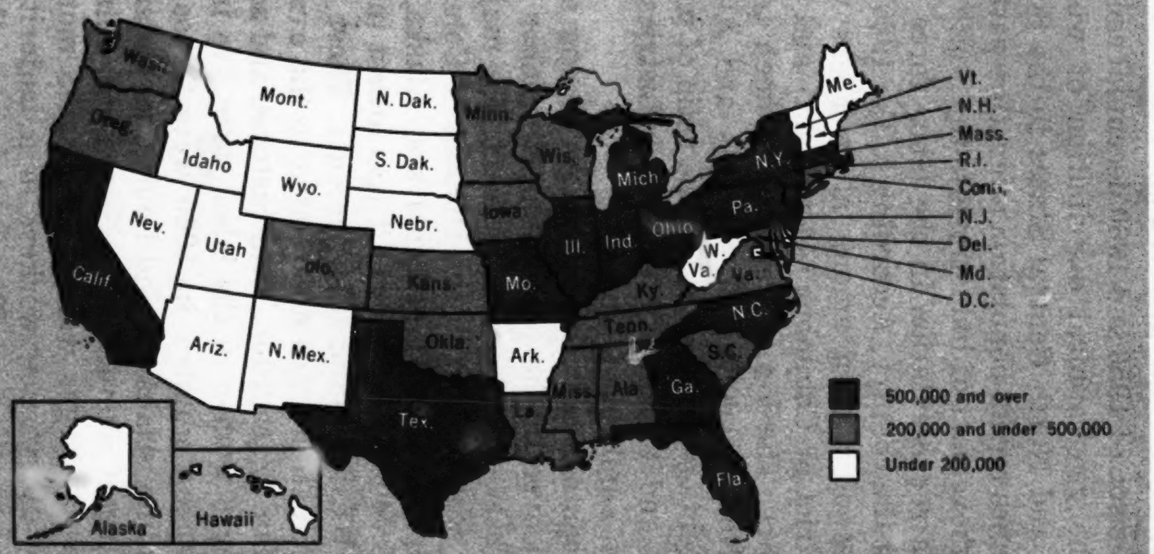
[6] See "Women Workers in 1960: Geographical Differences." Bull. 284. Women's Bureau, U.S. Department of Labor. 1962.

Chart 8

FOURTEEN STATES EACH HAVE MORE THAN A HALF MILLION WOMEN WORKERS

(Number of Women Workers, 1960)


Wash.
Oreg.
Calif.
Idaho
Nev.
Mont.
Wyo.
Utah
Ariz.
Colo.
N. Mex.
N. Dak.
S. Dak.
Nebr.
Kans.
Okla.
Tex.
Minn.
Iowa
Mo.
Ark.
La.
Wis.
Ill.
Mich.
Ind.
Ohio
Ky.
Tenn.
Miss.
Ala.
Ga.
Fla.
S.C.
N.C.
Va.
W. Va.
Pa.
N.Y.
Me.
Vt.
N.H.
Mass.
R.I.
Conn.
N.J.
Del.
Md.
D.C.
Alaska
Hawaii
500,000 and over
200,000 and under 500,000
Under 200,000

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

cent) and the District of Columbia and Florida (53 percent each). It was lowest in Mississippi (34 percent), Louisiana and Oklahoma (36 percent each), and Michigan (37 percent).

7. Annual Growth in Labor Force of Women and Men, 1947–68

The important advances in employment that women have made since World War II are brought out clearly by comparing for men and women the average numbers in the labor force in 1947 and 1968. Such a comparison shows that the number of women in the civilian labor force increased by 75 percent (from 16.7 to 29.2 million), while the number of men rose only 16 percent (from 42.7 to 49.5 million) (chart C). Consequently, in 1968 women were 37 percent of the total civilian labor force compared with only 28 percent in 1947.

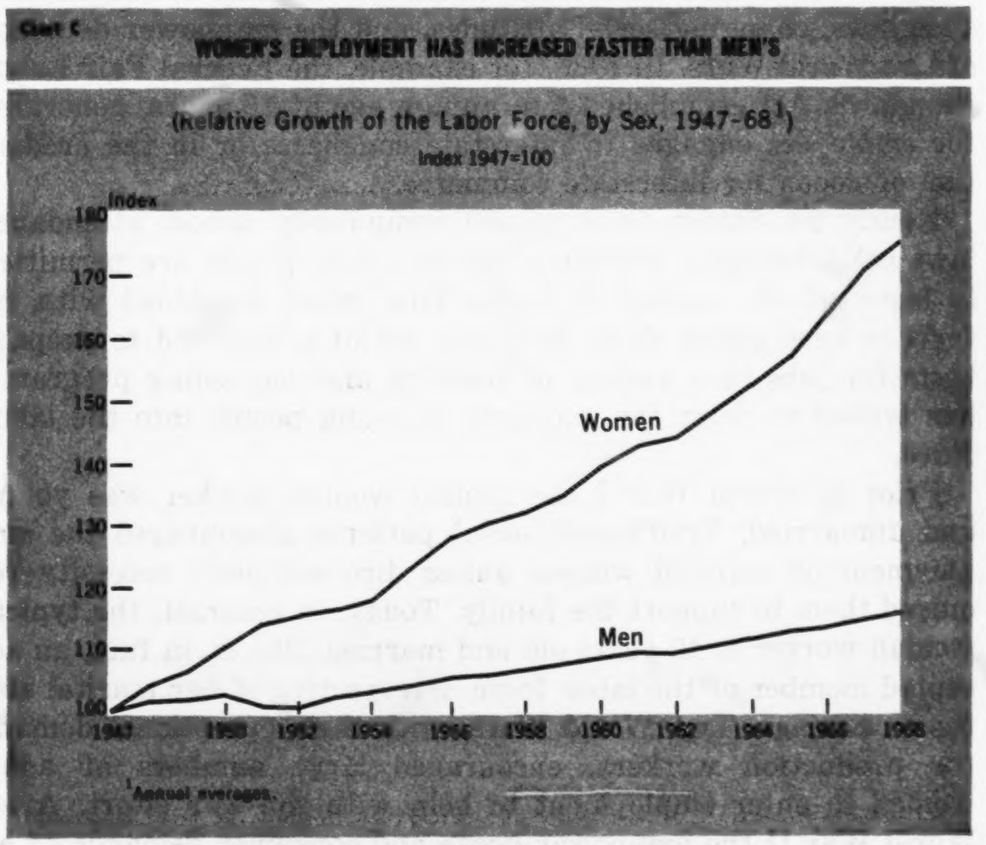


Chart C

WOMEN'S EMPLOYMENT HAS INCREASED FASTER THAN MEN'S

(Relative Growth of the Labor Force, by Sex, 1947-68[1])

Index 1947=100

[1] Annual averages.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

8. Rise in Median Age of Women Workers

Since the turn of the century there has been an almost continuous rise in the median (half above/half below) age of women workers. In 1900 their median age was 26 years; in 1940, 32 years; in 1945, 34 years; in 1950, 37 years; and in 1960, 41 years. By 1968 it had dropped slightly to 40 years—compared with about 41 years for men workers.

The downward influence on the average age of women workers has been the generation of war and postwar babies who have been entering the labor force in the 1960's. Their large numbers generally have been counterbalanced by the larger labor force of women 45 years of age and over. As a result, the average age of women workers has hovered at 40 or 41 years from 1960 to 1968.

Nonwhite women in the labor force are somewhat younger than white women workers. In 1968 the median age of nonwhite women workers was about 38 years.

The median age of workers was influenced not only by the changing age and sex composition of the population, but also by such developments as reforms in child labor and school attendance laws, changing social attitudes, and the manpower demands of two World Wars. In 1938, for example, the Federal Fair Labor Standards Act established a minimum age of 16 years, generally, for employees engaged in interstate commerce or in the production of goods for interstate commerce.

Nearly all States have passed compulsory school attendance laws establishing a minimum age at which pupils are permitted to leave school, usually 16 years. This trend, combined with efforts to keep pupils from dropping out of school and to prepare them for jobs by a variety of training and counseling programs, has tended to delay the entrance of young people into the labor force.

Prior to World War I the typical woman worker was young and unmarried. Traditional social patterns discouraged the employment of married women unless dire economic necessity required them to support the family. Today, in contrast, the typical woman worker is 40 years old and married. She is, in fact, an accepted member of the labor force, irrespective of her marital status or her age. Two World Wars, with their exceptional demand for production workers, encouraged large numbers of adult women to enter employment to help with the war effort. After World War II the manpower needs and consumer demands of an expanding economy caused many mature women to remain on the job and inspired others to join them. These various developments tended to raise the median age of women workers—and at an accelerated rate after 1940.

A comparison of the distribution of the woman labor force in

1940 and 1968 by age group clearly illustrates the shift toward the employment of more mature women (table 3). In 1940 about 2 out of 5 women workers were 35 years of age or over. In 1968, in contrast, almost 3 out of 5 women in the labor force were 35 years or over.

Table 3.—WOMEN IN THE POPULATION AND LABOR FORCE, BY AGE, 1940 AND 1968 [1]

(Women 16 years of age and over)

Age	Number		Percent distribution		Percent increase 1940–68
	1968	1940	1968	1940	
POPULATION					
Total	69,910,000	47,769,000	100.0	100.0	46.5
16 and 17 years	3,542,000	2,413,000	5.1	5.1	46.8
18 and 19 years	3,446,000	2,506,000	4.9	5.2	37.5
20 to 24 years	7,699,000	5,870,000	11.0	12.3	31.2
25 to 34 years	11,885,000	10,760,000	17.0	22.5	10.5
35 to 44 years	12,034,000	9,120,000	17.2	19.1	32.0
45 to 54 years	11,682,000	7,475,000	16.7	15.6	56.3
55 to 64 years	9,238,000	5,115,000	13.2	10.7	80.6
65 years and over	10,384,000	4,510,000	14.9	9.4	130.2
LABOR FORCE					
Total	28,697,000	13,783,000	100.0	100.0	108.2
16 and 17 years	914,000	333,000	3.2	2.4	174.5
18 and 19 years	1,665,000	1,070,000	5.8	7.8	55.6
20 to 24 years	4,095,000	2,820,000	14.3	20.5	45.2
25 to 34 years	5,089,000	3,820,000	17.7	27.7	33.2
35 to 44 years	5,866,000	2,680,000	20.4	19.4	118.9
45 to 54 years	6,147,000	1,830,000	21.4	13.3	235.9
55 to 64 years	3,936,000	920,000	13.7	6.7	327.8
65 years and over	986,000	310,000	3.4	2.2	218.1

[1] Data are for civilian noninstitutional population and labor force in March 1940 and April 1968.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Employment and Earnings, May 1968. U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census: Current Population Reports, P–50, Nos. 22 and 32.

Labor Force Participation of Women

9. Variations in Labor Force Participation by Age Group, 1940–68

The labor force participation rate of women is the percent of all women in the population 16 years of age and over who are working or seeking work. It therefore includes the unemployed.

In past decades the highest labor force participation rate of women was traditionally among those 20 to 24 years old. In 1940, for example, from a high of 48 percent for this age group the rate was successively lower for each older group (table 4). By 1960, however, the proportion of mature women in the labor force actually exceeded the proportion of young women, as women developed a two-phase lifetime working cycle—taking a job when first out of school, withdrawing from the labor force for marriage and motherhood, and returning to paid work in later years when the children are in school or on their own. In recent years the percentages of those at work in the two groups have been fairly similar—with a slightly higher proportion in the younger group.

Table 4.—LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATES OF WOMEN, BY AGE, SELECTED YEARS, 1940–68 [1]

Age	1968	1960	1950	1940
Total	41.0	37.4	33.0	28.9
16 and 17 years	25.8	23.7	25.2	13.8
18 and 19 years	48.3	48.0	45.6	42.7
20 to 24 years	53.2	45.4	44.6	48.0
25 to 34 years	42.8	35.9	33.6	35.5
35 to 44 years	48.7	44.3	38.2	29.4
45 to 54 years	52.6	49.5	37.1	24.5
55 to 64 years	42.6	37.4	27.6	18.0
65 years and over	9.5	10.8	9.7	6.9

[1] Data are for civilian noninstitutional population in March 1940 and in April of other years.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Employment and Earnings, May 1968, and Special Labor Force Report No. 14. U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census: Current Population Reports, P–57, No. 94, and P–50, Nos. 22 and 32.

Between 1960 and 1968 the number of girls 16 to 19 years old in the population increased by about 1.8 million as a result of the World War II "baby crop." However, in spite of the larger number of young women and girls in the population today, their labor force participation rate increased only slightly between 1950 and 1968. Two factors are primarily responsible: first, the tendency for girls to extend their training and schooling before taking a job; second, the early age at which they marry and have children, thus delaying entry into the labor force for many because of family responsibilities.

The labor force participation rate for girls aged 16 and 17 years increased from 14 percent in 1940 to 25 percent in 1950 and then remained fairly stationary through 1968. The rate for young women aged 18 and 19 years rose slightly, from 46 percent in

1950 to 48 percent in 1968, but this was only about 5 percentage points higher than the rate in 1940. However, in the next two age groups—20 to 24 years and 25 to 34 years—the percentages of women at work dropped from 1940 to 1950 before taking an upward turn. These were largely the mothers of the World War II "baby crop." By 1968 the labor force participation rates of women in these two groups were higher by 5 and 7 percentage points, respectively, over 1940.

Of special interest is the recent rise in the labor force participation of young adult women (25 to 34 years of age) from 35.9 percent in 1960 to 42.8 percent in 1968. This reflects in part the declining birth rate, which reached a new low in 1967.

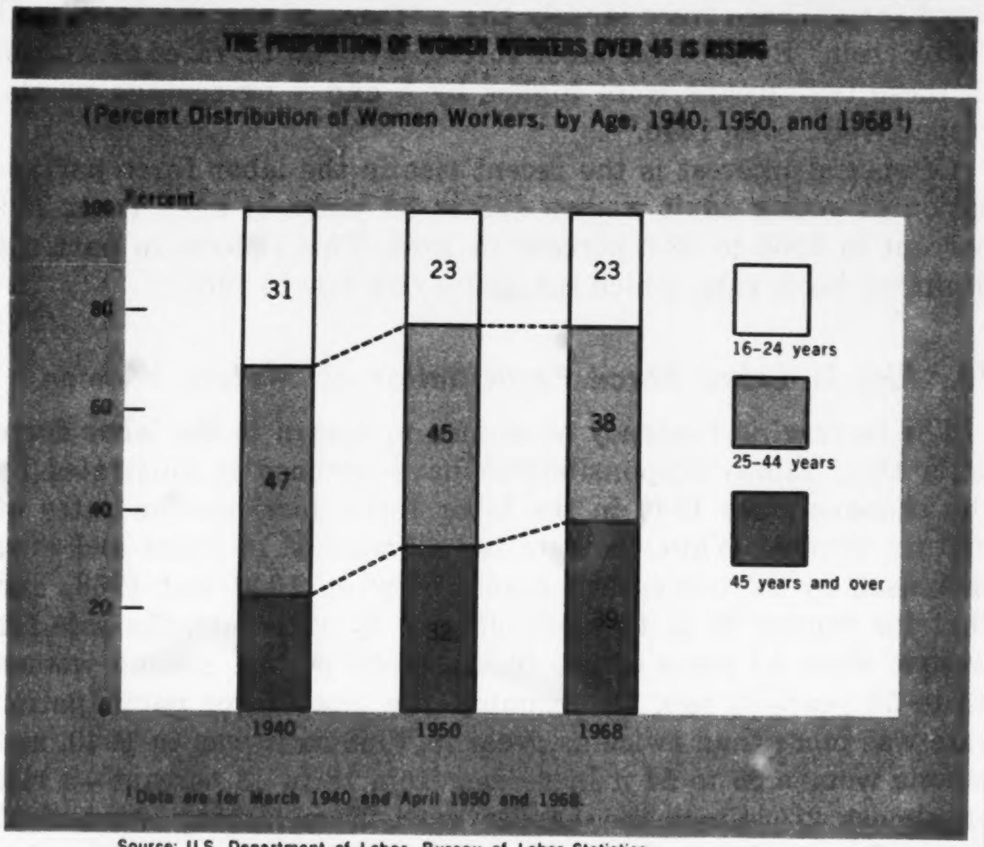
10. Rise in Labor Force Participation of Mature Women

The increasing tendency of women to return to the labor force after their family responsibilities have lessened is illustrated by the changes since 1940 in the labor force participation rates of mature women. While the rate for all women 16 years and over increased by 12 percentage points between 1940 and 1968, and that for women 35 to 44 years old rose by 19 points, the rate for women 45 to 64 years of age increased 26 points. Among women 45 to 54 years of age, for example, the labor force participation rate was more than twice as great in 1968 as it was in 1940, and among women 55 to 64 it increased from 18 to 43 percent—a rise of almost 2½ times the earlier rate. Even among women 65 years of age and over there was increased labor force participation —9 percent in 1968 compared with 7 percent in 1940.

The dramatic increase in the number of mature women in the labor force is illustrated in table 3. In age group 35 to 44 years the number of women workers more than doubled between 1940 and 1968. In age group 45 to 54 years their number more than tripled, and in age group 55 to 64 years their number increased more than fourfold. Even among the oldest group of women, 65 years and over, the number of women workers rose more than threefold during that period.

The corresponding increase in the woman population between 1940 and 1968 was substantially less. The highest rise was for age group 65 years and over.

The significant extent to which women aged 45 and over have moved into the labor force in recent years is indicated by chart D. In 1940 such women were only 22 percent of all women in the labor force, but by 1968 they constituted 39 percent. During the same period the proportion of the under-25-year age group dropped from 31 to 23 percent, and that of women in the central years (25 to 44) dropped from 47 to 38 percent.



THE PROPORTION OF WOMEN WORKERS OVER 45 IS RISING

(Percent Distribution of Women Workers, by Age, 1940, 1950, and 1968[1])

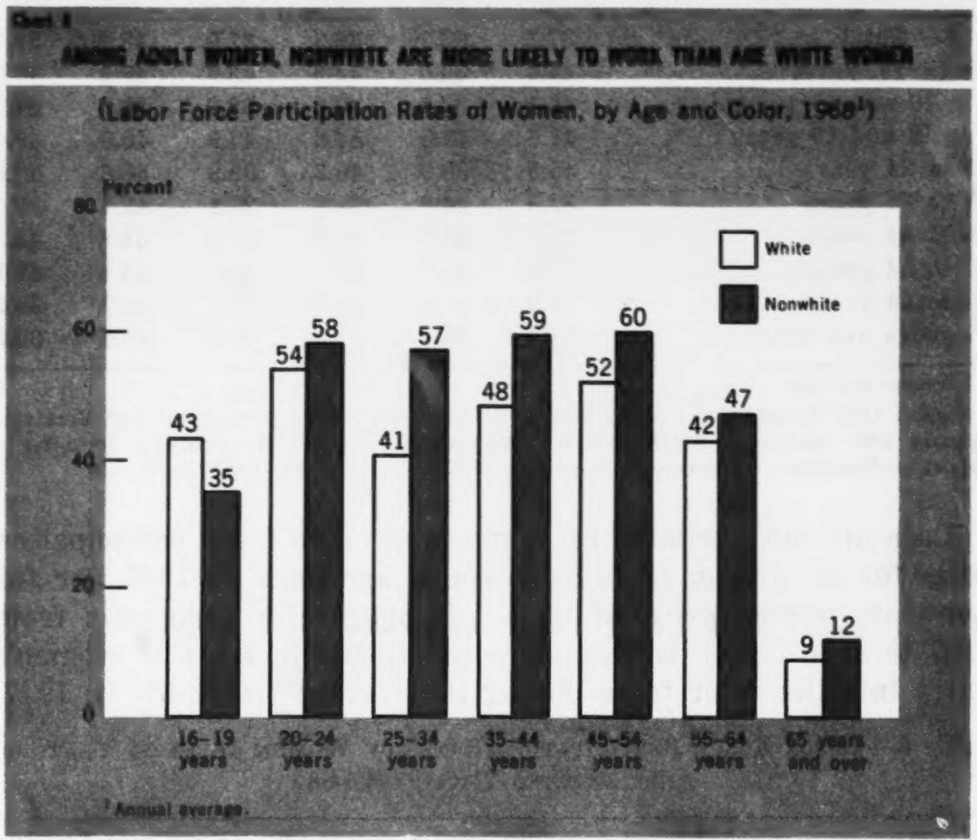
[1] Data are for March 1940 and April 1950 and 1968.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

11. Labor Force Participation of White and Nonwhite Women

A comparison of labor force participation rates for white and nonwhite women in 1968 shows that, except among teenagers, relatively more nonwhite than white women were in the labor force (chart E). The difference is most striking in age group 25 to 34 years, where 57 percent of nonwhite women, but only 41 percent of white women, were in the labor force. This compares with an overall average labor force participation rate of 49 percent for nonwhite and 41 percent for white women. The highest labor force participation rates were in age group 45 to 54 years: 60 percent for nonwhite women and 51 percent for white women.

Traditionally a much higher proportion of nonwhite than white women are in the labor force. The main reason for this difference is that economic responsibility for maintaining the family often falls more heavily on nonwhite than on white women. In recent years, however, mature white women have entered the labor force in such large numbers that the difference has been reduced slightly.



Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

A comparison of proportions of women workers in the total labor force by age and by color for 1958 and 1968 shows the rising importance of both white and nonwhite women in the labor force during that decade (table 5).

12. Labor Force Participation of Women 18 to 64 Years Old

Labor force participation rates usually are computed for ages 16 years and over, the standard working ages now used by the Bureau of the Census. A more appropriate rate for women, however, is one calculated for ages 18 to 64 years, the age group at which employment is most likely. Girls under 18 years of age, for example, preferably should be in school or in training, and women over 65 should be free to retire from the labor force and not under economic compulsion to work.

Table 5.—WOMEN AS PERCENT OF CIVILIAN LABOR FORCE, BY AGE AND COLOR, 1958 AND 1968 [1]

(Women 16 years of age and over)

Age	All women as percent of all workers		White women as percent of all white workers		Nonwhite women as percent of all nonwhite workers	
	1968	1958	1968	1958	1968	1958
Total	37.1	32.7	36.3	31.9	43.2	39.5
16 to 19 years	44.4	43.0	44.6	43.7	42.9	37.9
16 and 17 years	40.1	37.7	40.3	38.0	38.6	34.8
18 and 19 years	47.6	47.0	47.8	47.9	45.6	40.0
20 to 24 years	45.5	39.9	45.3	39.9	46.6	40.0
25 to 34 years	32.5	28.6	31.0	27.1	42.4	39.0
35 to 44 years	35.4	32.3	34.2	31.1	44.3	42.3
45 to 54 years	37.4	34.3	36.7	33.5	43.5	41.1
55 to 64 years	35.9	30.2	35.5	29.7	39.9	35.2
65 years and over	31.7	25.7	31.3	25.3	35.6	30.3

[1] Annual averages.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Employment and Earnings, January 1969; Manpower Administration: "Manpower Report of the President Including a Report on Manpower Requirements, Resources, Utilization, and Training." April 1968.

Data are not available for computing labor force participation rates for all women 18 to 64 years of age prior to 1947 nor for nonwhite women prior to 1954, but figures for each year from 1947 to 1968 for all women show the steady increase in women's entry into the labor force during that period (table 6). In 1947,

Table 6.—LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATES OF WOMEN 18 TO 64 YEARS OF AGE, SELECTED YEARS, 1947–68 [1]

Year	All women	Nonwhite women
1968	48.2	56.1
1967	47.6	56.2
1966	46.5	55.9
1965	44.7	55.1
1962	43.5	53.9
1960	42.7	53.5
1958	41.8	53.0
1956	41.1	51.6
1954	38.6	50.7
1952	38.3	([2])
1950	37.2	([2])
1948	35.6	([2])
1947	34.8	([2])

[1] Annual averages.

[2] Data not available.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Employment and Earnings, January 1969; Manpower Administration: "Manpower Report of the President Including a Report on Manpower Requirements, Resources, Utilization, and Training." April 1968.

35 percent of women 18 to 64 years old were either working or seeking work. By 1968 this proportion had risen to 48 percent.

Nonwhite women in this age group had a labor force participation rate one-sixth higher than that for all women. Their rate rose from 51 percent in 1954 to 56 percent in 1968, as compared with the rise from 39 percent to 48 percent for all women in this age group.

Marital Status of Women Workers

13. Nearly 3 Out of 5 Women Workers Are Married

The increasing tendency of married women to go to work has been the most important factor in the growth of the woman labor force. Fifty-eight percent of all women 16 years of age and over in the labor force in March 1967 were married (husband present), and 21 percent were single (table 7). An additional 6 per-

Table 7.—WOMEN IN THE POPULATION AND LABOR FORCE,[1] BY MARITAL STATUS, MARCH 1940 AND 1967

(Women 16 years of age and over)

Marital status	Number	Percent distribution		Percent increase 1940–67
		1967	1940[2]	
		POPULATION		
Total	69,410,000	100.0	100.0	37.3
Single	11,664,000	16.8	27.6	[3] 19.5
Married	46,191,000	66.5	59.5	53.5
Husband present	43,225,000	62.3	56.4	51.6
Husband absent	2,966,000	4.3	3.1	88.4
Widowed	9,228,000	13.3	[4] 12.9	[4] 77.1
Divorced	2,327,000	3.4		
		LABOR FORCE		
Total	27,545,000	100.0	100.0	99.0
Single	5,915,000	21.5	48.5	[3] 13.4
Married	17,486,000	63.5	36.4	246.9
Husband present	15,908,000	57.8	30.3	278.8
Husband absent	1,578,000	5.7	6.1	87.9
Widowed	2,487,000	9.0	[4] 15.1	[4] 98.3
Divorced	1,657,000	6.0		

[1] Data are for civilian noninstitutional population and labor force.

[2] Survey made in 1940 also included data for girls 14 and 15 years of age.

[3] A decrease instead of an increase.

[4] Not reported separately in 1940.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Special Labor Force Report No. 94. U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census: Current Population Reports, P–50, No. 22.

cent were married (husband absent), 9 percent were widowed, and 6 percent were divorced.

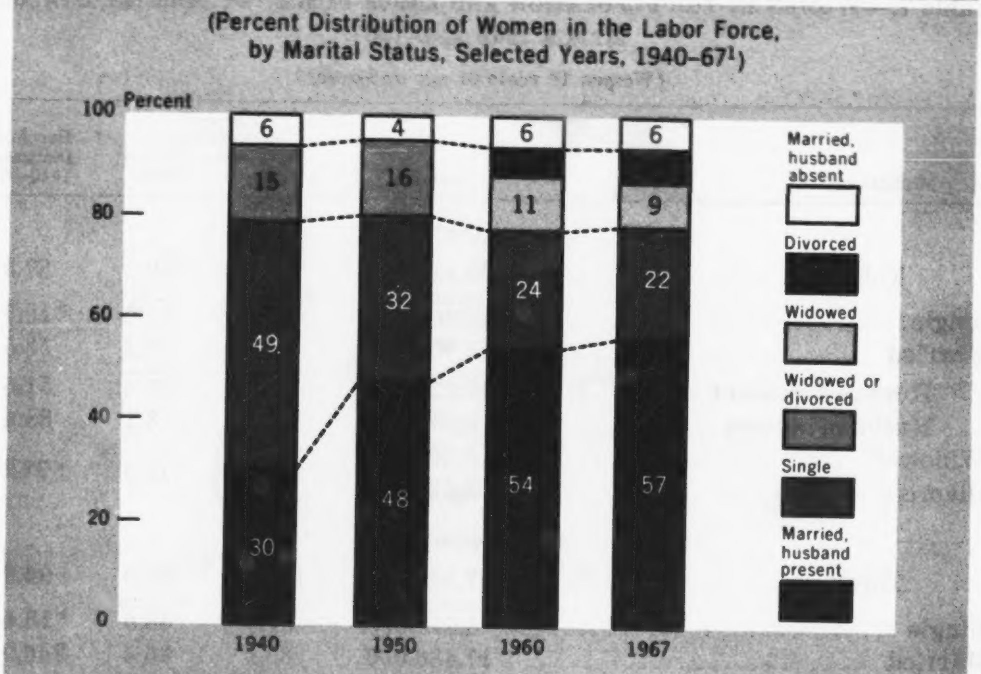
This is a remarkable change from 1940, when only 30 percent[7] of all women workers were married (husband present) and 48 percent were single (chart F). The number of married women (husband present) in the labor force increased by almost 12 million between 1940 and 1967. This represented a rise of 279 percent, an increase substantially larger than their 52-percent rise in the population.

In contrast, the number of single women in the labor force declined by almost 800,000 between 1940 and 1967, and the propor-

Chart F

MOST WOMEN WHO WORK ARE MARRIED

(Percent Distribution of Women in the Labor Force, by Marital Status, Selected Years, 1940–67[1])



Data cover March of each year and are for women 14 years of age and over except 1967 which are for 16 and over.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics; U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

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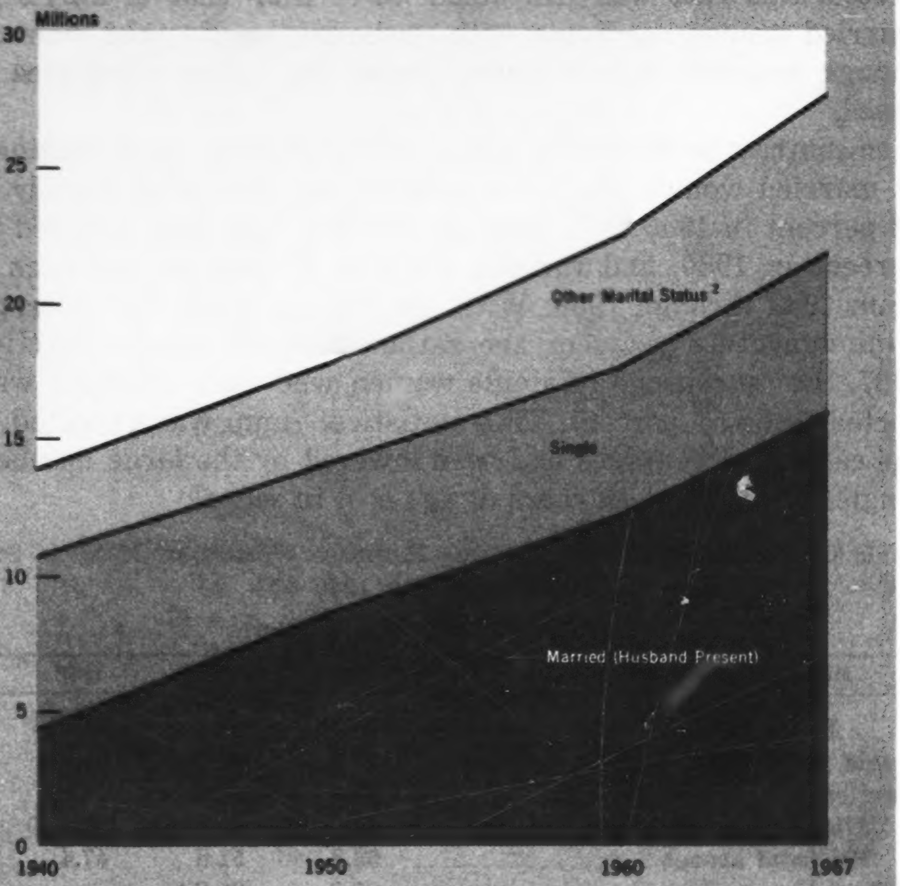
[7] Prior to 1967, reports on the marital status of workers covered persons 14 years of age and over.

tion of all women workers who were single dropped from 48 percent to only 21 percent. Higher marriage rates contributed to this decline in the number of single women workers. Marriage rates started to rise during World War II and reached their peak during 1946–48. By 1967, about 62 percent of all women in the population 16 years of age and over were married and living with their husbands compared with 56 percent in 1940. Currently at least 9 out of 10 girls can expect to marry.

Chart 6

THE NUMBER OF MARRIED WOMEN IN THE LABOR FORCE HAS GROWN RAPIDLY

(Women in the Labor Force, by Marital Status, Selected Years, 1940–67[1])



[1] Data cover March of each year and are for women 14 years of age and over except 1967 which are for 16 and over.

[2] Includes widowed, divorced, or separated.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics;
U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

The other group of women in the labor force—those widowed, divorced, or separated from their husbands for other reasons, including those whose husbands are in the Armed Forces—remained at the same proportion (approximately one-fifth) during the period 1940–67. In actual numbers, however, they almost doubled (chart G).

14. Labor Force Participation of Women by Marital Status

As indicated previously, the most significant change between 1940 and 1967 in labor force participation rates of women occurred among married women (husband present) (table 8). In 1940, 15 percent of these women were workers; by 1967 this proportion had more than doubled—to 37 percent. As might be expected, this rate was still much lower than that of single girls, married women not living with husbands, or divorced women, although married women outnumbered the other categories combined.

In contrast to the steady rise in the labor force participation rate of married women, that of single women increased slightly from 48 percent in 1940 to 51 percent in 1950, and then dropped to 44 percent in 1960, and further down to 41 percent for each year from 1963 through 1966. With the change in survey coverage (a minimum of 16 years of age rather than 14 years) effective in 1967, the percentage of single women who were working was reported to be 51 percent. This statistical jump was expected since the earlier percentages had been lowered by the large numbers of single girls 14 and 15 years of age still in school.

Table 8.—LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATES OF WOMEN, BY MARITAL STATUS, SELECTED YEARS, 1940–67 [1]

(Women 16 years of age and over)

Marital status	1967	1960[2]	1950[2]	1940[2]
Total	39.7	34.8	31.4	27.4
Single	50.7	44.1	50.5	48.1
Married	37.8	31.7	24.8	16.7
Husband present	36.8	30.5	23.8	14.7
Husband absent	53.2	51.8	47.4	53.4
Widowed	27.0	29.8	[3] 36.0	[3] 32.0
Divorced	71.2	71.6		

[1] Data are for March of each year.

[2] Surveys made prior to 1967 also included data for girls 14 and 15 years of age.

[3] Not reported separately in 1940 and 1950.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Special Labor Force Report Nos. 94 and 13. U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census: Current Population Reports, P–50, Nos. 29 and 22.

Women in other marital status groups characteristically have high labor force participation rates. More than half (53 percent) of the 3 million married women (not widows or divorcees) whose husbands were absent from home were workers in 1967. This group included about 172,000 women whose husbands were in the Armed Forces, but consisted largely of those whose husbands were absent for such reasons as employment away from home, residence in an institution, separation by choice, or desertion.

Of the 9.2 million widowed women in the population in 1967, 27 percent were in the labor force; of the 2.3 million divorced women, 71 percent. The labor force participation of these two groups combined had increased slightly since 1940. However, a much smaller percentage of widows than of divorcees were workers, mainly because widows represent an older age group.

15. *Labor Force Participation of Women by Age and Marital Status*

When labor force participation rates of single and married women (husband present) are analyzed according to age, it is evident that the probability of a woman's working is influenced more by marital status than by age. Differences in participation are particularly noticeable among women 25 to 29 years old, the age group in which married women are most likely to have young children who need their care (table 9). In this age group 84 percent of single women, but only 34 percent of married women liv-

Table 9.—LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATES OF WOMEN, BY AGE AND MARITAL STATUS, MARCH 1967

(Women 16 years of age and over)

Age	Marital status		
	Single	Married (husband present)	Other[1]
Total	50.7	36.8	39.4
16 to 19 years	37.2	31.5	41.1
20 to 24 years	70.3	41.1	60.9
25 to 29 years	84.1	34.1	59.7
30 to 34 years	73.6	35.8	64.9
35 to 44 years	74.5	42.7	68.9
45 to 54 years	72.2	44.9	69.1
55 to 64 years	63.2	33.5	53.5
65 to 69 years	32.4	10.6	20.9
70 years and over	10.4	3.0	5.9

[1] Widowed, divorced, or separated.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Special Labor Force Report No. 94.

ing with their husbands, worked in 1967. In the age group 30 to 34 years, the difference was still pronounced—74 percent of single women, but only 36 percent of married women (husband present), were in the labor force.

The peak in labor force participation of single women (84 percent) was in the age group 25 to 29 years; the peak of married women with husband present (45 percent) was in the age group 45 to 54 years.

For each age group, starting with 20 to 24 years, the highest rate of participation in the labor force was among single women and the lowest rate was among married women living with their husbands. The percentage of widowed, separated, and divorced women in the labor force fluctuated, with a high of 69 percent for those between the ages of 35 and 54 years.

Family Status of Women Workers

1 Types of Families in the Population

There were almost 49 million families in the United States in March 1967, with the 42.6 million husband-wife families forming 87 percent of the total.[8] Eleven percent of the families had a woman as the head, and the remaining 2 percent were headed by a man without a wife.

Husband-wife families usually are larger than those headed by a woman or by a man without a wife. In March 1967 there were four or more members in nearly half of the husband-wife families, but in less than one-third of the families headed by a woman and one-fifth of those headed by a man without a wife present.

Nearly three-fifths of all husband-wife families had one or more own children under 18 years of age, about one-tenth had at least one additional family member 18 years of age or over, and three-tenths had no children under 18 years of age and no other family member 18 years of age or over. In the latter group were many older couples whose children were grown and no longer living with them and many childless young couples.

Families headed by a woman had a somewhat different composition. Of the 5.2 million such families in 1967, almost half consisted of two members, almost one-fourth consisted of three members, and the remainder consisted of four or more members. Nearly half of the women were widows, and almost two-fifths were separated or divorced.

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[8] U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census: Current Population Reports, P-20, No. 173.

Half of the women had no own children under 18 years of age, but 18 percent had one own child and 32 percent had two or more own children. Moreover, almost one-tenth of the women family heads had children under 18 years living with them who were related to them but were not their own. About 37 percent of those with own children had children under 6 years of age. Twenty-two percent of all women family heads were nonwhite; they numbered 1.1 million.

17. Unrelated Individuals in the Population

In addition to these family groups of related individuals, there were about 7.9 million women and 4.7 million men classified as "unrelated individuals," who were not living with relatives. About 6.6 million of these women had their own homes or apartments and were living independently as "primary individuals." As a group, these were older women (median age 65 years), and most were widows. The other 1.3 million women in this classification, most of whom were in their thirties and single, were mainly roomers, boarders, hotel guests, and resident employees.

18. Labor Force Participation of Women in Different Types of Families

Labor force participation rates of women vary among the different types of families. Obviously, women who do not have husbands are more likely to work than are those with husbands. More than half of the women family heads were in the labor force in 1967, in contrast to only 37 percent of the wives living with their husbands.

Employment Status of Husband-Wife and Female-Head Families

19. Husband-Wife Families

In 37 million husband-wife families the husbands were in the labor force in March 1967. In 50 percent of these families another member of the family also was in the labor force. About 735,000 of the husbands were unemployed (an unemployment rate of 2 percent). About 5.5 million husbands in husband-wife families were not in the labor force.

20. Female-Head Families

More than 50 percent of the women who had families but no husbands in March 1967 were in the labor force (table 20). In 44

Table 10.—EMPLOYMENT STATUS OF FEMALE FAMILY HEADS, BY EMPLOYMENT STATUS OF OTHER FAMILY MEMBERS, MARCH 1967

(Persons 16 years of age and over)

Employment status of other family members	Female family heads					
	Population	Labor force			Unemployment rate	Percent in labor force
		Total	Employed	Unemployed		
Number	5,166,000	2,717,000	2,596,000	121,000	4.5	52.6
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	---	---
Some other member in the labor force	46.6	44.4	44.4	44.4	4.6	50.1
Some other member employed[1]	42.2	39.7	40.1	31.5	3.6	49.5
Some other unemployed, none employed	4.4	4.6	4.2	12.9	12.7	55.3
No other member in the labor force	53.4	55.6	55.6	55.6	4.6	54.8

[1] Includes families with one or more members employed regardless of the employment status of other members.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Special Labor Force Report No. 94.

percent of the 2.7 million families whose women heads were workers, another member of the family group also was in the labor force. However, 1.5 million female family heads were the sole breadwinners for their families and 121,000 were unemployed. Their unemployment rate of 4.5 percent was considerably higher than that for husbands in husband-wife families. The remaining 2.4 million female family heads were not in the labor force.

An analysis of the labor force status of female family heads by age reveals that in March 1967 the labor force participation rate was highest for those 45 to 54 years old (71 percent) (table 11). These women accounted for only 29 percent of all female family heads in the labor force and 22 percent of all female family heads in the population. In the next younger age group (35 to 44 years old), nearly 68 percent of the women were workers; in the next higher age group (55 to 64 years old), 57 percent.

Table 11.—LABOR FORCE STATUS OF FEMALE FAMILY HEADS, BY AGE, MARCH 1967

(Women 16 years of age and over)

Age	Number		Percent distribution		Percent in labor force
	Population	Labor force	Population	Labor force	
Total	5,166,000	2,717,000	100.0	100.0	52.6
16 to 24 years	244,000	128,000	4.7	4.7	52.5
25 to 34 years	808,000	494,000	15.6	18.2	61.1
35 to 44 years	1,086,000	733,000	21.0	27.0	67.5
45 to 54 years	1,116,000	792,000	21.6	29.1	71.0
55 to 64 years	789,000	450,000	15.3	16.6	57.0
65 years and over	1,123,000	120,000	21.7	4.4	10.7

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Special Labor Force Report No. 94.

Although the youngest age group (16 to 24 years old) was numerically almost the smallest and represented only 5 percent of all female family heads in the population and also in the labor force, nearly 53 percent were in the labor force. At the other extreme, women 65 years of age and over represented the largest group of female family heads in the population, but only 11 percent were in the labor force.

Significantly, families headed by women were the most economically deprived—in 1967 almost one-third of such families lived in poverty, according to the poverty index developed by the U.S. Social Security Administration. They were also the most persistently poor—it is estimated that between 1959 and 1966 the number of poor nonfarm households headed by women increased 2 percent.[9]

Working Wives

The growing tendency for married women to go into paid work is reflected in the number and proportion of working couples in the Nation.

Of the 15.9 million wives (husband present) in the labor force in March 1967, about 14.8 million had husbands who were also in the labor force. These working couples represented 34 percent of all couples in the population. They had increased by 6.8 million since 1950, when there were 8 million working couples—22 percent of all married couples. Before World War II their number and proportion were still smaller: in 1940 working couples numbered 3 million—only 11 percent of all couples.

In 18.4 million husband-wife families the husbands were the only earners in March 1967. In 3.7 million such families the wives were not in the labor force, but other family members as well as the husbands were working. The labor force also included over a million working wives whose husbands were not in the labor force, mainly because they were retired or disabled. In over half a million families neither the husbands nor the wives worked, but other family members did, and in 3.8 million families no one worked.

21. *Labor Force Participation of Wives by Income of Husband*

The percentage of wives in the labor force in March 1967 was highest where the husbands' incomes were between $5,000 and $7,000 (43 percent) (table 12). The next highest was where the husbands' incomes were between $3,000 and $5,000 (41 percent).

When the husbands' incomes were at the poverty level, the labor force participation rate of wives varied from 27 percent where the husbands' incomes were between $1,000 and $2,000 to 37 percent where they were under $1,000. When the husbands' incomes were just under the poverty line—$2,000 to $3,000—33 percent of the wives were in the labor force.

At the upper end of the income scale, only 29 percent of the wives whose husbands' incomes were $10,000 or more were in the labor force.

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[9] Economic Report of the President, February 1968.

The labor force participation rates of wives, therefore, are highest where the husbands' incomes do not represent poverty levels, but rather the lower range of middle-income levels. The rate then declines as the husbands' incomes reach higher levels.

Table 12.—Labor Force Participation Rates of Wives (Husband Present), by Income of Husband in 1966 and Presence and Age of Children, March 1967

(Women 16 years of age and over)

Income of husband	Total	Presence and age of children		
		No children under 18	Children 6-17 only	Children under 6[1]
Total	36.8	38.9	45.0	26.5
Under $1,000	37.4	34.3	52.3	35.3
$1,000 to $1,999	27.0	23.6	45.9	31.4
$2,000 to $2,999	33.0	29.2	50.8	31.3
$3,000 to $4,999	41.4	41.0	52.0	34.4
$5.000 to $6,999	42.6	48.0	49.9	31.6
$7,000 to $9,999	37.9	46.6	46.9	21.9
$10,000 and over	28.8	36.6	32.9	15.7

[1] Also may have older children.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Special Labor Force Report No. 94.

When a wife decides whether or not to seek paid employment, the presence of young children in the family seems a more important consideration than her husband's income. (For details on working mothers, see secs. 25–33.) Among married women (husband present) the labor force participation rate in March 1967 varied from 27 percent for those who had preschool children to 45 percent for those with school-age children only. On the other hand, wives (husband present) who had no children under 18 years of age had a relatively low labor force participation rate of 39 percent. This is explained by the fact that this group includes many older women who are retired or unable to work.

A percent distribution of all working wives shows that in March 1967 almost two-thirds had husbands whose incomes were $5,000 or more (table 13). More working wives (about 27 percent) were found where the husbands' incomes were between $5,000 and $7,000 than at any other income level. At the extremes, 16 percent of working wives had husbands whose incomes were below $3,000; 14 percent, $10,000 or more.

22. *Contribution of Wives to Family Income*

A special study by the Bureau of Labor Statistics throws light on the contribution made to family income by married women who worked some time during 1967.[10] These statistics include women who worked full time the year round and also those who worked part time and part of the year.

Table 13.—PERCENT DISTRIBUTION OF MARRIED WOMEN (HUSBAND PRESENT) IN THE LABOR FORCE, BY INCOME OF HUSBAND IN 1966, MARCH 1967

(Women 16 years of age and over)

Income of husband	Wives in the labor force
Number	15,908,000
Percent	100.0
Under $1,000	4.2
$1,000 to $1,999	5.2
$2,000 to $2,999	6.5
$3,000 to $4,999	18.6
$5,000 to $6,999	26.8
$7,000 to $9,999	24.9
$10,000 and over	13.9

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Special Labor Force Report No. 94.

They show that wives' earnings generally constituted a smaller proportion of family income in low-income families than in higher income families (table 14). For example, in almost three-fifths of the families with incomes below $2,000, but in only about one-fifth of the families with incomes between $10,000 and $15,000, the wives' earnings accounted for less than 10 percent of family income.

In families with incomes below $2,000, nearly half of the working wives contributed less than 5 percent to family income. In the income class $2,000 to $3,000, almost two-fifths of the wives who worked contributed less than 5 percent. In more than one-fifth of the families in this income class, the wives' earnings accounted for 10 to 30 percent of family income.

In higher income brackets wives generally contributed a greater share to family income. Wives' earnings accounted for 30 percent or more of the income in almost half of the families with incomes between $10,000 and $15,000. They accounted for 20 percent or more in almost three-fifths of the families with incomes of $15,000 or more.

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[10] U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Special Labor Force Report No. 94.

Table 14.—Percent of Family Income Accounted for by Wives' Earnings in 1966

Family income	Median percent of family income accounted for by wives' earnings	Percent distribution of wives by percent of family income accounted for by wives' earnings								
		Total	Less than 5.0	5.0 to 9.9	10.0 to 19.9	20.0 to 29.9	30.0 to 39.9	40.0 to 49.9	50.0 to 74.9	75.0 and over
Under $2,000	6.0	100.0	48.0	9.6	9.2	6.9	5.8	3.8	7.5	9.2
$2,000 to $2,999	12.2	100.0	37.8	9.1	14.5	7.0	7.4	6.4	10.6	7.1
$3,000 to $4,999	14.4	100.0	34.5	9.2	14.5	9.8	7.5	6.4	11.4	6.6
$5,000 to $6,999	15.8	100.0	32.7	10.0	12.6	11.8	10.2	9.3	9.8	3.6
$7,000 to $9,999	23.0	100.0	21.5	9.4	14.5	15.5	17.5	12.4	8.2	1.1
$10,000 to $14,999	28.1	100.0	14.8	6.4	14.0	18.4	23.1	16.6	6.5	.3
$15,000 and over	22.9	100.0	20.0	7.9	15.6	22.3	18.7	11.0	4.1	.4
Median family income	---	$8,767	$7,008	$8,130	$8,955	$9,993	$10,322	$9,973	$7,673	$4,566

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Special Labor Force Report No. 94.

The median family income was highest ($10,332) in families where wives' earnings accounted for 30 to 40 percent of family income. It was lowest ($4,566) in families where wives obviously were the principal earners, accounting for 75 percent or more of family income.

23. Job-Related Expenses of Working Wives

Working wives, and particularly working mothers, have many expenses related to their working that reduce the income available to them from their earnings. The principal costs involved are for clothing and personal care, food, transportation, child care and household help arrangements, and taxes. Studies reveal that these work-related expenses may absorb between one-fourth and one-half of a wife's earnings.[11] If she has children, her expenses vary according to their number and ages.

Working wives tend to spend more for clothing, beauty care, and other personal grooming needs than nonworking wives do. They may spend more for food because they tend to buy more of the time-saving "convenience foods" and to eat more meals in public eating places. They have transportation expenses to and from work. Working mothers, in addition, may have considerable expenses for day care for their children. This may involve private or public day care centers or babysitters. Working wives and mothers often pay for household help, such as maids or cleaning women, and they may increase their expenses by sending their household laundry to commercial establishments.

There are other job-related expenses, such as purchased lunches, required uniforms, dues for professional organizations or union membership, professional publications, or even continued education—depending on the requirements of the job. Federal and State income taxes and social security taxes must be paid. In addition, the earnings of the wife often place total family income in a higher income tax bracket.

On the other hand, there are benefits from working outside the home, in addition to the obvious one of increased family income. A few are tangible; most are intangible but personally significant. Among the measurable benefits may be employee pension plans, health insurance benefits, paid sick leave and vacations, profit-sharing plans, and discount privileges, as well as social security benefits and retirement income above those the nonworking wife can count on. Often the intangible benefits are equally or more important to the working wife. These include the opportunity to widen her horizons and the benefit of being able to develop new skills and discover new aptitudes. Many working wives feel that they become more effective members of their own families and contribute more to their community and to society in general by combining paid employment with homemaking.

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[11] "The Working Wife and Her Family's Economic Position." *In* Monthly Labor Review, Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor, April 1962, and "Marital and Family Characteristics of Workers." *Ibid.*, January 1963. Ann E. [illegible], "Financial and Management Practices of Employed and Nonemployed Wives." *In* Journal of Home Economics, December 1961. See also Special Labor Force Report No. 40, Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor.

24. Occupations of Husbands and Wives

A comparison of the occupations held by husbands and wives in March 1967 indicated that just over one-fifth of working couples pursued similar lines of work.

The highest correlation between the husband's and the wife's jobs existed among clerical workers (45.1 percent); however, it was apparent that within this major occupation group many husbands and wives did not do the same work (table 15). Two-fifths (40 percent) of the wives of professional and technical workers were in the same major occupation group as their husbands. Correlation between farm jobs was also relatively high (34.8 percent)—not surprising since most farm wives have few job opportunities other than farm work.

More than one-third of the wives of service workers had service jobs, and approximately three-tenths of the wives of operatives, about one-tenth of the wives in managerial positions, and one-ninth of those in sales work had husbands in the same occupations.

Working Mothers[12]

25. Number and Proportion of Working Mothers

Working mothers with children under 18 years of age numbered 10.6 million in March 1967 (table 16). They represented 38 percent of all such mothers in the population and 38 percent of all women workers. Nonwhite working mothers with children of these ages totaled 1.5 million or 15 percent of all working mothers.

Working mothers as a group are not as young as might be ex-

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[12] The term "working mothers," as used in this publication, refers to workers who have children under 18 years of age, unless otherwise designated.

Table 15.—OCCUPATION OF WIVES, BY OCCUPATION OF HUSBANDS, MARCH 1967

	Occupation of husband									
Occupation of wife	Total	Professional, technical workers	Managers, officials, proprietors (except farm)	Clerical, kindred workers	Sales workers	Craftsmen, foremen, kindred workers	Operatives, kindred workers	All service workers	Farm workers	Nonfarm laborers
Number (in thousands)	13,637	1,788	2,091	1,059	811	2,859	2,755	944	641	689
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Professional, technical workers	14.6	40.0	16.0	13.2	18.6	9.8	6.6	7.8	12.1	4.8
Medical and other health workers	3.4	7.4	3.0	4.0	4.2	2.7	2.0	2.9	3.6	.9
Teachers (except college)	6.7	19.6	7.4	5.4	8.0	3.7	3.0	3.0	6.9	2.6
Other professional workers	4.5	13.0	5.6	3.8	6.4	3.4	1.6	1.9	1.6	1.3
Managers, officials, proprietors (except farm)	4.6	3.3	10.7	4.6	5.4	3.7	2.8	2.6	3.4	2.2
Salaried	3.2	2.6	6.8	3.9	3.7	2.7	2.0	1.8	2.3	1.3
Self-employed	1.4	.7	3.9	.7	1.7	1.0	.8	.8	1.1	.9
Clerical, kindred workers	33.1	34.4	43.8	45.1	45.0	34.9	25.2	26.7	12.2	17.9
Secretaries, stenographers, typists	11.1	15.4	13.3	16.5	16.9	10.7	7.7	8.0	3.3	5.4
Other clerical workers	22.0	19.0	30.5	28.6	28.1	24.2	17.5	18.7	8.9	12.5
Sales workers	8.2	7.2	12.9	5.9	11.6	8.7	6.5	6.5	4.8	6.2
Craftsmen, foremen, kindred workers	1.1	.6	1.1	1.0	.2	1.7	1.6	.8	.6	.9
Operatives, kindred workers	17.5	5.0	6.4	15.3	7.5	21.4	31.4	19.2	14.4	27.0
Private household workers	3.8	1.2	.7	1.6	1.4	3.8	5.0	6.2	7.2	15.1
Service workers (except private household)	14.6	8.2	7.9	12.9	9.8	14.9	19.7	28.8	10.1	22.8

Waitresses, cooks, bartenders	5.1	2.0	3.3	4.4	2.5	5.5	6.7	9.3	5.3	8.7
Other service workers	9.5	6.2	4.6	8.5	7.3	9.4	13.0	19.5	4.8	14.1
Farm workers	2.2	.2	.2	.2	.3	.7	.9	.4	34.8	1.9
Nonfarm laborers	.3	.1	.2	----	.1	.5	.3	.7	.5	1.3

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Special Labor Force Report No. 94.

Table 16.—MOTHERS IN THE POPULATION AND LABOR FORCE, BY MARITAL STATUS AND BY AGE OF CHILDREN, MARCH 1967

(Mothers 16 years of age and over)

Marital status and age of children	Number		Percent distribution		Percent in labor force
	Population	Labor force	Population	Labor force	
Mothers with children under 18 years	27,683,000	10,582,000	100.0	100.0	38.2
Married, husband present	24,819,000	8,750,000	89.7	82.7	35.3
Other women ever married[1]	2,864,000	1,832,000	10.3	17.3	64.0
Mothers with children 6 to 17 only	13,264,000	6,443,000	47.9	60.9	48.6
Married, husband present	11,699,000	5,269,000	42.3	49.8	45.0
Other women ever married[1]	1,565,000	1,174,000	5.7	11.1	75.0
Mothers with children 3 to 5 (none under 3)[2]	5,607,000	1,934,000	20.3	18.3	34.5
Married, husband present	5,030,000	1,595,000	18.2	15.1	31.7
Other women ever married[1]	577,000	339,000	2.1	3.2	58.8
Mothers with children under 3[2]	8,812,000	2,205,000	31.8	20.8	25.0
Married, husband present	8,090,000	1,886,000	29.2	17.8	23.3
Other women ever married[1]	722,000	319,000	2.6	3.0	44.2

[1] Widowed, divorced, or separated.

[2] Also may have older children.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Special Labor Force Report No. 94.

pected. Their median age in March 1967 was 37 years—only about 3 years less than the median age for all women workers.

26. *Labor Force Participation of Mothers*

The presence or absence of a husband has a strong influence on a mother's decision to work. Thus in March 1967 the proportion of mothers in the labor force whose husbands were present was only 35 percent compared with 64 percent for other mothers.

There were 8.8 million working mothers with husband present in 1967, which represented 83 percent of all working mothers. Of these mothers, more than 3 out of 10 (35.3 percent) were in the labor force. In contrast, of the mothers not living with their husbands—the widowed, divorced, separated, or deserted, who were rearing children in fatherless homes—more than 6 out of 10 (64 percent) were in the labor force. These mothers have, of course, a compelling need for earnings: probably half of them are rearing children in poverty.[19]

27. *Trends in Labor Force Participation of Mothers*

Between 1940 and 1967 the labor force participation rate of mothers increased about two times more than did the labor force participation rate of all women (table 17). In 1940 only 9 percent of all mothers with children under 18 years of age worked outside

Table 17.—LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATES OF MOTHERS AND OF ALL WOMEN,[1] SELECTED YEARS, 1940-67

Year	Mothers[2]	All women[2]
1967	38.2	41.1
1966	35.8	39.8
1964	34.5	37.4
1962	32.9	36.6
1960	30.4	36.7
1958	29.5	36.0
1956	27.5	35.9
1954	25.6	33.7
1952	23.8	33.8
1950	21.6	32.1
1948	20.2	31.9
1946	18.2	31.2
1940	8.6	28.2

[1] Includes women 16 years of age and over in 1967 but 14 years and over in earlier years.
[2] Data are for March of each year except 1946, 1948, 1950, and 1952 when they are for April.
[3] Annual averages.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics; U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

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[19] U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Social Security Administration: "The Shape of Poverty in 1966" in Social Security Bulletin, March 1968.

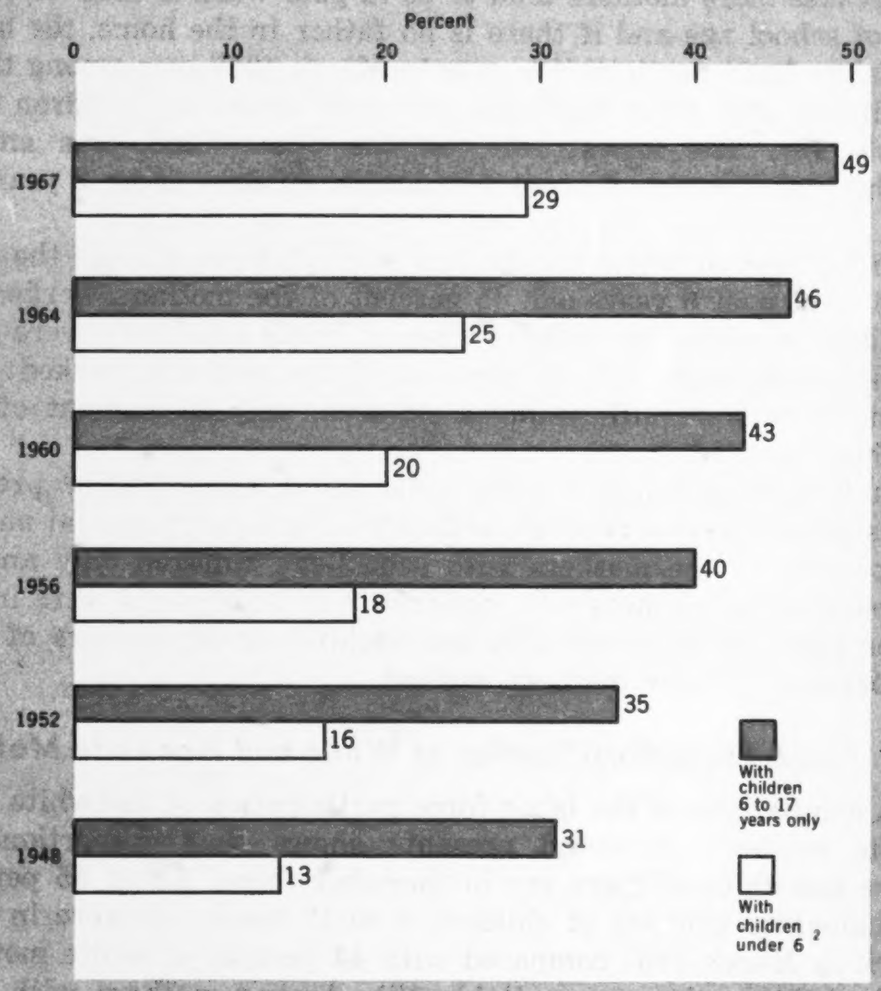
the home, but by 1967 this proportion had increased to 38 percent. The corresponding rise in the proportion of all women in the labor force was much smaller—from 28 percent in 1940 to 41 percent in 1967.

Since 1948 the percentage of mothers who work has steadily increased about 1 percentage point a year (chart H). Between 1948 and 1960 the participation rate rose more slowly for mothers with children under 6 years of age than for those with

Chart H

MOTHERS ARE MORE LIKELY TO WORK TODAY THAN EVER PEFORE

(Labor Force Participation Rates of Mothers, by Age of Children, Selected Years, 1948–67[1])



[1] Data cover March of each year except for April 1948 and 1952 and are for women 14 years of age and over except 1967 which are for 16 and over.

[2] May also have older children.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics; U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

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children 6 to 17 years only. However, since 1960 the rate for mothers of young children increased much faster than for other mothers, so that by 1967, 49 percent of the mothers with children 6 to 17 years only and 29 percent of those with young children were in the labor force.

28. Children of Working Mothers

Working mothers with husband present had nearly 20 million children under 18 years of age in 1967, with about 5 million of them under 6 years old.

Because more mothers tend to be in paid work if their children are of school age and if there is no father in the home, the highest labor force participation rate in March 1967 was among those not living with their husbands and with school-age children only (table 16). The lowest rate, on the other hand, was among mothers with husband present and with children under 3 years of age.

In families in which the fathers were at home and all the children were over 6 years old, 45 percent of the mothers worked. In families in which the fathers were at home and there were children 3 to 5 years old, 32 percent of the mothers worked; and when there were still younger children, only 23 percent of the mothers worked.

In fatherless homes, on the other hand, much higher proportions of mothers worked, reflecting their greater financial need—75 percent of the mothers with school-age children only and 59 percent of the mothers with children 3 to 5 years old were in the labor force. Even where they had children under 3 years of age, 44 percent of these mothers worked.

29. Labor Force Participation of White and Nonwhite Mothers

A comparison of the labor force participation of nonwhite with white mothers (husband present) shows that proportionately more nonwhite mothers are in the labor force. About 55 percent of nonwhite mothers of children 6 to 17 years old were in paid work in March 1967 compared with 44 percent of white mothers with children these ages (table 18). Among mothers with children under 6 years of age, 42 percent of the nonwhite mothers, but only 25 percent of the white mothers, were in the labor force.

A percent distribution of nonwhite and white working mothers (husband present) by age of children shows that relatively more nonwhite had children under 3 years old and relatively more white had older children (chart I).

Table 18.—Labor Force Participation Rates of Mothers (Husband Present), by Color and by Age of Children, March 1967

(Mothers 16 years of age and over)

Age of children	Mothers in the labor force		Nonwhite as percent of all working mothers
	Nonwhite	White	
	NUMBER		
Total	1,053,000	7,697,000	12.0
	PERCENT		
Children 6 to 17 years only	55.2	44.2	9.3
Children under 6 years[1]	42.1	24.8	16.1
None under 3 years	51.8	29.6	16.2
Some under 3 years	36.5	21.7	16.3

[1] Also may have older children.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Special Labor Force Report No. 94.

30. *Labor Force Participation of Mothers by Income of Husband*

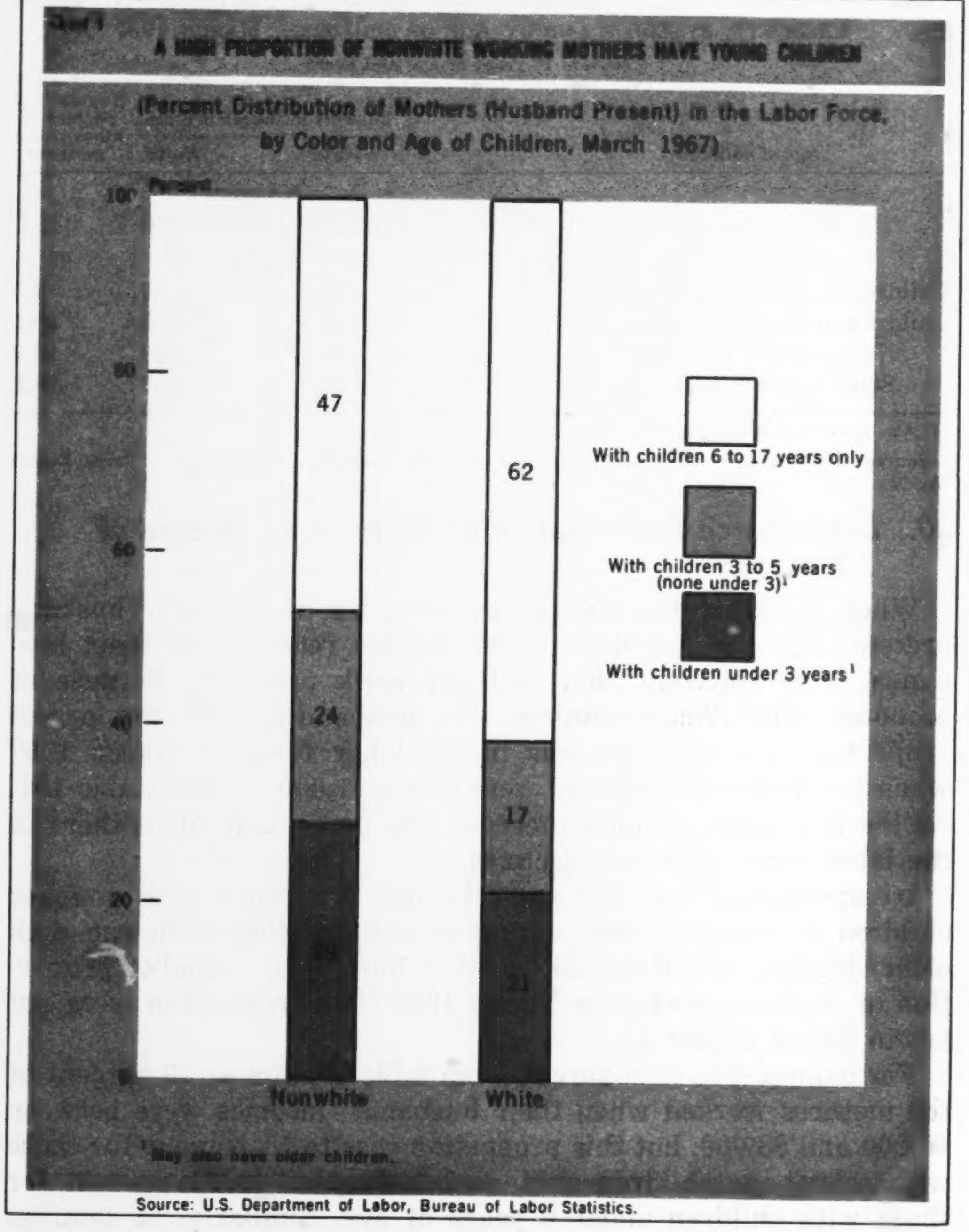
When the labor force participation rates of mothers (husband present) are correlated with the income received by their husbands, it is apparent that mothers work primarily because of economic need. Among mothers with husband present, the largest proportion (44 percent) was in the labor force in March 1967 when the husbands' incomes were below $1,000 a year (table 19). As the husbands' incomes increase, the percentage of mothers in the labor force generally declines.

Irrespective of her husband's income, a mother with younger children is obviously less willing or able to work than one with older children. At all income levels of husbands, a smaller proportion of mothers worked in March 1967 if their children were not yet in school (chart J).

For example, as is apparent from table 19, almost 40 percent of the mothers worked when their husbands' incomes were between $2,000 and $3,000, but this proportion rose to 51 percent for those with school-age children only, and it dropped to 31 percent for those with children under 6 years of age. Similarly, in families where the husbands' incomes were between $5,000 and $7,000, 39 percent of all the mothers were in the labor force, but only 32 percent worked if they had preschool children. At yet higher income levels (between $7,000 and $10,000), 34 percent of the mothers were in the labor force, but only 22 percent worked when they had young children.

31. *Part-Time and Part-Year Work Patterns of Mothers*

Mothers are likely to work part time (less than 35 hours a



A HIGH PROPORTION OF NONWHITE WORKING MOTHERS HAVE YOUNG CHILDREN

(Percent Distribution of Mothers (Husband Present) in the Labor Force, by Color and Age of Children, March 1967)

[1] May also have older children.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

week) or part of the year (less than 50 weeks of the year) or both. Mothers with husband present and very young children (under 3 years), in particular, tend to prefer part-time and part-year work. Many mothers who can work only part time must make a special effort to find a job with a work schedule flexible enough to combine work outside the home with care of their children.

Many mothers who work full time (35 hours a week or more) work only part of the year. They may take full-time seasonal jobs

Table 19.—Labor Force Participation Rates and Percent Distribution of Mothers (Husband Present), by Income of Husband in 1966 and Age of Children, March 1967

(Mothers 16 years of age and over)

Income of husband	Percent of mothers in labor force with children—			Percent distribution of mothers in labor force with children—		
	Under 18 years	6–17 years only	Under 6 years[1]	Under 18 years	6–17 years only	Under 6 years[1]
Total	35.3	45.0	26.5	8,750,000 100.0	5,269,000 100.0	3,481,000 100.0
Under $1,000	44.3	52.3	35.3	2.6	2.8	2.4
$1,000 to $1,999	38.5	45.9	31.4	3.1	3.0	3.3
$2,000 to $2,999	39.5	50.8	31.3	4.9	4.4	5.7
$3,000 to $4,999	41.9	52.0	34.5	18.3	15.9	22.0
$5,000 to $6,999	39.4	50.0	31.6	28.1	25.1	32.6
$7,000 to $9,999	33.8	46.9	21.9	27.7	30.4	23.6
$10,000 and over	25.4	32.9	15.7	15.2	18.4	10.4

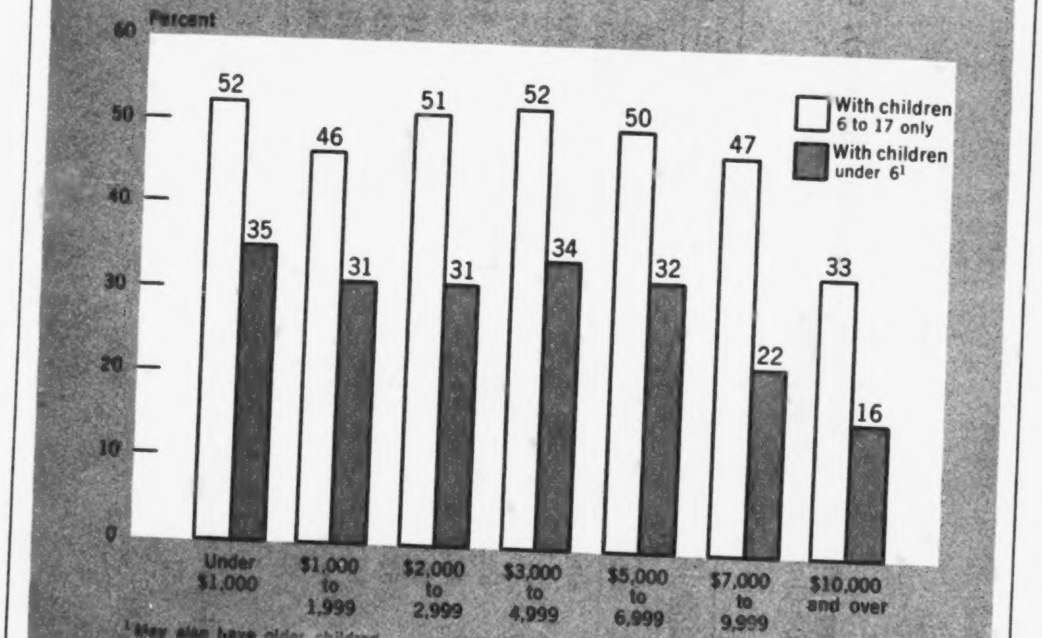
[1] Also may have older children.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Special Labor Force Report No. 94.

Chart J

A SMALLER PROPORTION OF MOTHERS WITH YOUNG CHILDREN WORK AT ALL INCOME LEVELS

(Labor Force Participation Rates of Mothers, by Income of Husband in 1966 and Age of Children, March 1967)



[1] May also have older children.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

during periods of peak business, such as are available in retail trade during the Christmas season, in laundries during the summer, or in canneries and other food processing plants during the harvest season. Mothers who are teachers may work only part of the year, and so may mothers in the hotel and resort business. (For other information on part-time and part-year work of women, see secs. 34 and 35.)

Mothers (husband present).—Among mothers with husband present and school-age children only, 65 percent worked full time in 1966, but only 39 percent worked full time the year round (table 20). Twelve percent of the mothers who worked full time were on the job from 1 to 26 weeks only.

Mothers (husband present) who had preschool children were even less inclined to work full time or the year round. Sixty-two percent of the mothers with 3- to 5-year-old children and none younger worked full time, but only 31 percent worked full time the year round and 19 percent worked from 1 to 26 weeks.

A higher proportion of mothers with children under 3 years was on full-time schedules than of mothers who had school-age

Table 20.—WORK EXPERIENCE IN 1966 OF MOTHERS (HUSBAND PRESENT), BY AGE OF CHILDREN, MARCH 1967

(Mothers 16 years of age and over)

Work experience	Mothers with children—		
	6–17 years only	3–5 years (none under 3)[1]	Under 3 years[1]
Percent with work experience[2]	53.9	42.6	39.0
PERCENT DISTRIBUTION			
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Full time[3]	64.7	62.0	66.6
50 to 52 weeks	39.0	30.6	16.3
27 to 49 weeks	13.6	12.4	17.6
1 to 26 weeks	12.2	19.0	32.7
Part time[4]	35.3	38.0	33.4
27 weeks or more	21.7	19.5	12.5
1 to 26 weeks	13.6	18.5	20.8

[1] Also may have older children.

[2] Data are for civilian noninstitutional population.

[3] Worked 35 hours or more a week.

[4] Worked less than 35 hours a week.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Special Labor Force Report No. 94.

children only or children 3 to 5 years old but none younger. Sixty-seven percent of the mothers with children under 3 years worked full time, but only 16 percent worked full time the year round and 33 percent worked from 1 to 26 weeks.

The proportion of mothers (husband present) who worked part time was highest (38 percent) for those who had children 3 to 5 years old but none younger and lowest (33 percent) for those who had children under 3.

Mothers (husband absent).—Typically, a mother who is raising children without the help of a husband is more likely to work full time than is the mother whose husband is at home. Economic necessity is obviously the main reason for the mother's work pattern.

Eighty-one percent of all mothers (husband absent) who were employed in nonagricultural industries in March 1967 were on full-time schedules (table 21).

32. Child Care Arrangements of Working Mothers

The arrangements working mothers make for the care of their children are of vital importance to the welfare of their families

Table 21.—FULL-TIME AND PART-TIME WORK STATUS OF MOTHERS EMPLOYED IN NONAGRICULTURAL INDUSTRIES, BY MARITAL STATUS AND BY AGE OF CHILDREN, MARCH 1967

(Mothers 16 years of age and over)

Marital status and age of children	Number (in thousands)	Percent distribution		
		Total	Full time[1]	Part time[2]
Mothers with children under 18 years	9,751	100.0	72.2	27.8
Married (husband present)	8,078	100.0	70.5	29.5
Other women ever married[3]	1,673	100.0	80.6	19.4
Mothers with children 6 to 17 only	6,019	100.0	72.4	27.6
Married (husband present)	4,935	100.0	70.7	29.3
Other women ever married[3]	1,084	100.0	80.2	19.8
Mothers with children 3 to 5 years (none under 3)[4]	1,774	100.0	73.7	26.3
Married (husband present)	1,462	100.0	71.4	28.6
Other women ever married[3]	312	100.0	83.7	16.3
Mothers with children under 3 years[4]	1,958	100.0	70.5	29.5
Married (husband present)	1,681	100.0	69.1	30.9
Other women ever married[3]	277	100.0	79.1	20.9

[1] Worked 35 hours or more a week.

[2] Worked less than 35 hours a week.

[3] Widowed, divorced, or separated.

[4] Also may have older children.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Special Labor Force Report No. 94.

and to the interests of their communities. To obtain current information, the Children's Bureau of the U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare and the Women's Bureau of the U.S. Department of Labor cosponsored a national survey of child care arrangements of working mothers.[14] The survey was limited to women who worked 27 weeks or more in 1964, either full or part time, and who had at least one child under 14 years of age living at home. It was conducted by the Bureau of the Census in February 1965.

According to the latest findings, the 6.1 million mothers covered by the survey had 12.3 million children under 14 years of age, of whom 3.8 million were under 6 years. While their mothers were at work, 46 percent of the children were cared for in their own homes, with 15 percent looked after by their fathers, 21 percent by other relatives, and 9 percent by maids, housekeepers, or babysitters (table 22).

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[14] This survey was partially supported under the research program of the Manpower Administration, U.S. Department of Labor.

An additional 16 percent of the children were cared for outside their own homes, about half by relatives. Thirteen percent of the children were looked after by their own mothers while they worked, and 15 percent had mothers who worked only during school hours. Eight percent of the children were expected to care for themselves, while only 2 percent of the surveyed children were in group care, such as in day care centers, nursery schools, and after-school centers.

These findings, as did those of a survey undertaken by the Children's Bureau in 1958, emphasize the urgent need for additional day care facilities. Licensed public and private day care facilities available in 1967 could provide for about half a million children. This represented, unfortunately, only a small percentage of the

Table 22.—Child Care Arrangements of Working Mothers[1] With Children Under 14 Years of Age, by Age of Children, February 1965

(Percent distribution)

Type of arrangement	Total	Age of children: Under 6 years	6 to 11 years	12 and 13 years
Number (in thousands)	12,287	3,794	6,091	2,401
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Care in child's own home by—	45.5	47.1	46.9	38.1
Father	14.9	14.4	15.4	14.3
Other relative	21.2	17.5	23.2	20.9
Under 16 years	4.6	2.1	6.1	4.7
16 years and over	16.6	15.3	17.1	16.2
Nonrelative who only looked after children	4.7	8.4	3.8	1.2
Nonrelative who usually did additional household chores	4.7	6.9	4.4	1.7
Care in someone else's home by—	15.7	30.7	11.0	4.8
Relative	7.8	14.9	5.2	3.3
Nonrelative	8.0	15.8	5.8	1.5
Other arrangements	38.8	22.1	42.1	57.0
Care in group care center	2.2	5.6	.6	.4
Child looked after self	8.1	.5	8.0	20.7
Mother looked after child while working	13.0	15.0	12.5	11.1
Mother worked only during child's school hours	15.0	.8	20.5	24.2
Other	.5	.3	.6	.7

[1] Refers to mothers who worked either full or part time for 27 weeks or more in 1964.

Source: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Social and Rehabilitation Service, Children's Bureau, and U.S. Department of Labor, Wage and Labor Standards Administration, Women's Bureau: "Child Care Arrangements of Working Mothers in the United States." Children's Bureau Pub. 461–1968.

children who needed day care services. Public and voluntary agencies, however, are working actively to close the gap.

Several legislative enactments in recent years have helped to increase the availability of day care facilities. A major advance was made possible by the child welfare provisions of the 1962 Public Welfare Amendments to the Social Security Act, which authorized Federal grants-in-aid to State[15] public welfare agencies for day care services. To qualify for Federal aid, a State must have an approved child welfare services plan that requires, among other things, that day care will be provided only in facilities (including private homes) which are licensed by the State or meet the standards of the State licensing authority and give priority to children from low-income homes.

Since the adoption of these amendments, the States have been moving to provide adequate day care services for children who need them. For the year ending June 1968, more than half the States budgeted State or local funds for day care services, while all but five States budgeted some public funds (Federal, State, or local).

Under the 1967 amendments to the Social Security Act, the Work Incentive Program (WIN), which was established for recipients of aid to families with dependent children (AFDC), requires necessary child care services for children of those engaged in training or employment under the program.

Financial assistance for day care programs is also available under the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964. Headstart, the best known of the programs, was first administered by the Office of Economic Opportunity but recently was transferred to the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. It enables many young children in low-income families to have full-year full-day care, and other children to have part-day or summer care. In addition, special day care programs are provided for children of migrants.

Day care is authorized by the Economic Opportunity Act also as one of the supportive services provided in the Concentrated Employment Program (CEP), a work training program administered by the Department of Labor for unemployed and low-income individuals.

Under a Presidential directive of April 1968, a Federal Panel on Early Childhood, comprised of representatives from nine agencies, was established to coordinate all early childhood programs financed by Federal funds. On September 23, 1968, the

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[15] Includes territorial jurisdictions and the District of Columbia.

Panel issued "Interagency Day Care Requirements," setting forth minimum standards which must be met by day care programs receiving funds from the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare; the Department of Labor; or the Office of Economic Opportunity. The Panel also launched in 1968 a new program called Community Coordinated Child Care (4–C program). To be organized by one designated group in each locality, such as a community action agency or a local welfare department, the 4–C program seeks to expand and improve day care services through more effective communitywide planning, continuity of operation, efficient use of local resources, lower administrative costs, and better utilization of Federal funds.

Federal and State tax treatment regarding child care expenses.— Since its adoption in 1913, the Federal income tax law has made an allowance for the circumstances of the individual taxpayer through personal exemptions. In the Revenue Act of 1954 a deduction was allowed for child care expenses incurred by working women and widowers [16] if such child care enabled them to be gainfully employed. Under that act an allowance of up to $600 was permitted for care of a child under 12 years of age or a dependent physically or mentally incapable of caring for himself. Widows, widowers, and separated and divorced persons could deduct the full amount regardless of income. However, a married woman claiming the deduction was required to file a joint return with her husband, and if the combined adjusted gross income exceeded $4,500 the deduction was reduced $1 for each $1 above that amount. These restrictions regarding the working wife did not apply if her husband was incapable of self-support because of mental or physical disability.

A 1963 amendment provided for allowing the deduction for child care expenses to a deserted wife who could not locate her husband.

The Revenue Act of 1964 raised the maximum deduction for child care, the income limitation, and the age of children covered. Deductions of $600 for one child or $900 for two or more children may be taken when the total income of a working wife and her husband is less than $6,000 a year. Above that figure, the amount of deduction is reduced $1 for each $1 of income. As a result, a deduction cannot be claimed by one-child families with total adjusted gross income of more than $6,600 or by families with two or more children with more than $6,900. The act allows a married man to deduct the cost of child care if his wife is in an institution for at least 90 consecutive days or for a shorter period if terminated by her death. A married man whose wife is at home but unable to care for herself is eligible for the deduction, subject to the $6,000 income limitation applicable to married women. The act also raised the age of children covered by the deduction to include those under 13 years.

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[16] The term "widower" includes divorced and legally separated men.

In addition to Federal laws governing deductions for child care expenses, a number of States permit employed taxpayers to take such deductions from State income taxes. Some of the State laws are identical with the Federal law; others have variations as to who can claim the deduction, the amount of the deduction, the age limit of children for whose care the deduction can be claimed, and the income limitation of taxpayers eligible to claim the deduction.

33. Maternity Provisions

Large numbers of women workers in this country are eligible to receive maternity benefits. The three major types of maternity benefits are: maternity leave with provisions for job security, cash payments to compensate for loss of wages, and allowances for medical care and services. Such benefits are provided primarily through voluntary plans and less frequently by legislative action.

Voluntary plans.—Voluntary health plans include those negotiated between unions and management, those offered by commercial insurance companies, those operated by associations of hospitals or physicians, and those operated cooperatively by groups.

In 1966 the Bureau of Labor Statistics summarized 100 selected health and insurance plans[17] negotiated between unions and management. All but a few had maternity medical allowances for women employees. In addition, about half provided cash benefits for a specified number of weeks. Job security and paid sick leave as such were not covered in the study. There were wide variations in allowances for maternity hospitalization and for surgical and medical care; for example, the surgical allowance in many contracts ranged from $50 to $150. Many plans provided compensation for the full cost of specified services in addition to hospital room and board allowances. Others established a flat maternity allowance, covering both hospitalization and surgical benefits.

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[17] U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: "Digest of 100 Selected Health and Insurance Plans Under Collective Bargaining, Early 1966." Bull. 1502. September 1966.

In approximately three-fourths of these plans the company paid the full costs of maternity benefits for its employees. Under the remaining plans, the employer and employee shared the costs of the employee's benefits.

Legislative provisions.—Several Federal and State laws extend some maternity protection to limited numbers of women workers.

The only Federal law that specifically listed maternity benefits as such covered women employees in the railroad industry. However, that law was amended in 1968 to delete the provision for maternity weekly cash benefits, although the right of women to use their regular sick benefits during absences for pregnancy or childbirth was retained.

Women employees in Federal service do not receive maternity leave as such, but Federal law (5 U.S.C. 6301–6311) does make paid sick leave available to them, and a Civil Service Commission regulation permits sick leave to be used as maternity leave. As is the case for all illness, Federal employees receive full pay during their sick-leave days. Those days are limited in number each year but may be accumulated. Women granted maternity leave have job security and may return to the jobs they held before taking leave.

In addition, under Federal law (5 U.S.C. 8901–8913), Government employees may elect to participate in one of several health insurance plans that include payments toward maternity medical care for women employees. Both the Federal Government and the participating employees share the cost of these benefits. As a fairly new development, the Federal Government, through its Interdepartmental Committee on the Status of Women, is exploring the idea of seeking Congressional approval of paid maternity leave in addition to paid sick leave.

Women members of the Armed Forces, who are separated from military service because of pregnancy, are eligible for maternity care in a military hospital or facility. They are provided with prenatal, hospital, and postnatal care.

Women employed by Federal contractors and subcontractors and by federally assisted construction contractors and subcontractors are covered by Executive Order 11375 (see sec. 102), which in effect extends antidiscrimination programs of Government contractors to include discrimination based on sex. The equal employment opportunity program developed by the Department of Labor's Office of Federal Contract Compliance (OFCC) is implemented by Federal contracting agencies, with emphasis on affirmative action and preaward compliance review. As maternity leave protection is an integral part of the program, guidelines being prepared for women's employment include a provision relating to maternity leave.

Women employees in private industry are affected by maternity leave rulings of the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC), which administers title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 (see sec. 101). One ruling requires employers to grant recall rights to women after childbirth, just as recall rights are given to men after a sustained illness or convalescence. A second ruling maintains that "a leave of absence should be granted for pregnancy whether or not it is granted for illness." Another ruling declares that health plans which grant maternity benefits to wives of men employees must include women employees as well. However, the EEOC has ruled that it is not a violation of title VII to provide paid sick leave but unpaid maternity leave, and that an employer has the right to decide at what point during a woman's pregnancy her employment may be suspended.

Cash benefits for maternity leave are provided to women workers under the laws of New Jersey, Rhode Island, and Puerto Rico. Six other States and Puerto Rico prohibit employment for specified periods before and/or after childbirth, but of these only Puerto Rico requires women to have reemployment rights or receive compensatory payments (see sec. 117). Under State unemployment insurance laws, women in 37 States and the District of Columbia are disqualified from collecting unemployment insurance during a specified period before and/or after childbirth,[18] regardless of the reason for their unemployment (which might have been a layoff).

Many State and local governments allow their women employees to use sick leave as maternity leave, and some also provide insured medical care. In 1962, 14 States and Puerto Rico offered health benefit programs with maternity provisions to employees of these jurisdictions who wished to participate.[19] In two of these—New York and Massachusetts—local governments were allowed to participate voluntarily in the program. Under all these programs the employers and enrolled employees both contributed to their cost. A few of the plans were designed to cover the entire cost of combined hospital and physician's charges for a confinement.

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[18] U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Employment Security: "Comparison of State Unemployment Insurance Laws." Bull. U–141. 1966.

[19] U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Public Health Service: "State Employees' Health Benefit Programs." Health Economics Series No. 2, December 1963, and "Maternity Care Utilization and Financing." Health Economics Series No. 4, January 1964.

Variations in provisions ranged from separate allowances specified for hospital charges and physician's fees to a lump sum allowance for both types of expenses.

Working Life of Women

34. Work Experience of Women

The number of women and men in the labor force is obtained by a regular monthly survey of the population.[20] A similar survey, conducted once a year, yields the number of women and men who worked at some time during the previous year.

The number of persons who work some time during the course of a year is naturally greater than the average number in the labor force at any one period in time during that year. In 1967, 35.8 million women 16 years of age and over had some work experience,[21] but the average number in the labor force was 28.4 million —a difference of 7.4 million.

Many women cannot work full time (35 hours or more a week) the year round (50 to 52 weeks) because of home responsibilities, school attendance, or other reasons. In addition, there are women who would like to work throughout the year but are unable to find this type of job because of lack of skills or education or because such jobs are not available in the community in which they live. As a result, women are more likely than men are to work part time or part year. Only 42 percent of the women who worked at some time in 1967 were employed full time the year round (chart K). In contrast, 70 percent of all men with work experience in 1967 were full-time year-round workers. Twenty-eight percent of the women with work experience worked full time for part of the year. The remaining 29 percent of the women had part-time jobs. By comparison, only 11 percent of the men with work experience in 1967 held part-time jobs.

The percentage of women working part time increases as the number of weeks worked declines. Thus in 1967, less than one-fifth of the women who worked 50 to 52 weeks and less than one-third of those who worked from 27 to 49 weeks were employed part time, but almost one-half of those who worked half a year or less had part-time jobs.

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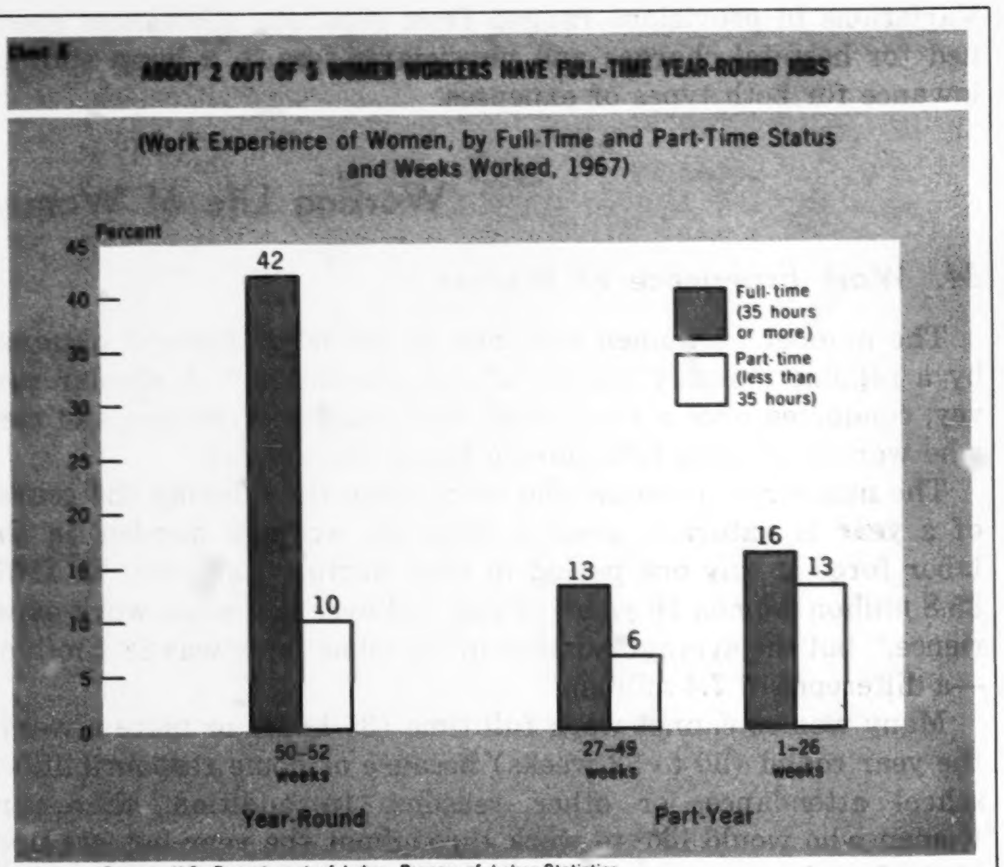
[20] The survey is conducted for the Bureau of Labor Statistics by the Bureau of the Census through its current population survey. It consists of interviewing a scientifically selected sample of about 50,000 households, designed to represent the civilian noninstitutional population 16 years of age and over.

[21] U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Special Labor Force Report No. 107.


ABOUT 2 OUT OF 5 WOMEN WORKERS HAVE FULL-TIME YEAR-ROUND JOBS

(Work Experience of Women, by Full-Time and Part-Time Status and Weeks Worked, 1967)

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Reasons given for part-year work.—The major reasons given by women and men for working only part of the year in 1967 differed considerably. More than half of the women stated that taking care of their household was the principal reason; another 21 percent said attendance at school limited their work. Only 12 percent claimed unemployment as the reason for working less than a full year. In contrast, 30 percent of the men 16 years of age or over mentioned unemployment as the major reason for part-year work, and one-third of the men reported school attendance as the principal factor.

Changes in work experience of women since 1950.—The number of women with work experience rose 12.4 million from 1950 to 1967 (table 23). The number who worked part time rose 4.3 million. This increase of 70 percent was considerably greater than the increase of 47 percent registered by women full-time workers. Most of the increase in part-time workers, however, came between 1950 and 1960. From 1960 to 1967 the number of women part-time workers increased by only 6 percent compared with an increase of 22 percent among full-time workers.

Another change in the composition of the group of women with work experience was that a somewhat larger proportion worked a full year in 1967 (52 percent) than in 1950 (45 percent). This was due mainly to a relatively large increase in the number of women who worked full time for 50 to 52 weeks.

Table 23.—WORK EXPERIENCE OF WOMEN, 1950, 1960, AND 1967 [1]

Work experience	Number (in thousands) 1967	1960	1950	Percent distribution 1967	1960	1950
Total	35,787	30,585	23,350	100.0	100.0	100.0
Year round:						
50 to 52 weeks:						
Full time [2]	15,084	11,299	8,592	42.1	36.9	36.8
Part time [3]	3,545	3,060	1,916	9.9	10.0	8.2
Part year:						
27 to 49 weeks:						
Full time [2]	4,651	4,479	4,171	13.0	14.6	17.9
Part time [3]	2,228	2,023	1,210	6.2	6.6	5.1
1 to 26 weeks:						
Full time [2]	5,516	4,899	4,377	15.4	16.0	18.7
Part time [3]	4,763	4,825	3,088	13.3	15.8	13.2

[1] Includes women 16 years of age and over in 1967 but 14 years and over in 1950 and 1960.

[2] Worked 35 hours or more a week.

[3] Worked less than 35 hours a week.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor: Bureau of Labor Statistics, Special Labor Force Report No. 107; Manpower Administration, "Manpower Report of the President Including a Report on Manpower Requirements, Resources, Utilization, and Training." April 1968.

Work experience by age.—As might be expected, women between 18 and 64 years of age are more likely to work some time during the year than are younger girls or older women. In 1967 almost three-fourths of all women 18 to 24 years of age, about three-fifths of those 45 to 54, and more than half of those 25 to 44 had work experience (table 24). In contrast, slightly less than half of the girls 16 and 17 years old and the women 55 to 64, and only one-seventh of the women 65 and over had worked some time during that year.

At all age levels a larger proportion of men than of women had work experience in 1967. For men the percentage was highest among those 25 to 54 years of age (96 or 98 percent) and lowest among those 65 years of age and over (35 percent).

In the principal working age group (18 to 64 years), the proportion of all women who worked some time during 1967 was 58 percent as compared with 94 percent for men.

Table 24.—PERCENT OF WOMEN AND MEN WITH WORK EXPERIENCE IN 1967, BY AGE

(Persons 16 years of age and over)

Age	Women	Men
Total	51.3	85.1
16 and 17 years	47.8	65.5
18 and 19 years	72.0	87.1
20 to 24 years	71.0	90.2
25 to 34 years	53.7	98.1
35 to 44 years	56.8	97.9
45 to 54 years	59.6	96.1
55 to 64 years	49.9	88.5
65 years and over	13.9	34.9
18 to 64 years	58.5	94.4

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Special Labor Force Report No. 107.

Women 45 to 64 years of age are the most likely to work full time the year round. About 55 percent of the women in this age group were full-time year-round workers in 1967 (table 25). In contrast, only 10 percent of girls 16 to 19 years of age were on full-time schedules throughout the year.

Teenage girls and women 65 years of age and over who work are the most likely to work primarily at part-time jobs. Among those with work experience, just over half of the girls 16 to 19 years of age and of the women 65 years of age and over were part-time workers in 1967. In fact, about 1 out of 3 of the teenage girls worked at part-time jobs for 26 weeks or less. On the other hand, less than 1 out of 5 women 20 to 24 years of age worked primarily at part-time jobs.

Work experience by marital status.—About 60 percent of the 35.8 million women with work experience in 1967 were married women living with their husbands (table 26). Another 23 percent were single, and the remaining 17 percent were widowed, divorced, or living apart from their husbands.

Single women were the most likely to have worked at some time in 1967. Sixty-nine percent of them compared with 46 percent of the widowed, divorced, or separated women and 48 percent of the married women (husband present) had had work experience.

Women who are widowed, divorced, or with husbands absent are more likely to work full time the year round than are single women or married women living with their husbands. In 1967, 52 percent of the former group of women were full-time year-round

Table 25.—Work Experience of Women in 1967, by Age

(Women 16 years of age and over)

Work experience	Total	Age						
		16–19 years	20–24 years	25–34 years	35–44 years	45–54 years	55–64 years	65 years and over
Number	35,787,000	4,167,000	5,432,000	6,342,000	6,856,000	6,948,000	4,599,000	1,443,000
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Worked at full-time jobs [1]	70.6	46.3	81.3	73.7	72.8	74.6	73.4	47.3
50 to 52 weeks	42.1	10.0	37.4	40.9	48.6	55.1	53.8	28.8
27 to 49 weeks	13.0	7.5	17.4	15.5	13.4	12.2	11.7	7.4
1 to 26 weeks	15.5	28.8	26.5	17.3	10.8	7.3	8.0	11.0
Worked at part-time jobs [2]	29.4	53.7	18.7	26.3	27.2	25.4	26.6	52.7
50 to 52 weeks	9.9	10.8	4.8	7.2	10.3	11.1	12.8	21.3
27 to 49 weeks	6.2	9.0	4.5	5.3	6.0	5.7	6.0	12.0
1 to 26 weeks	13.3	33.7	9.5	13.8	10.9	8.5	7.8	19.4

[1] Worked 35 hours or more a week.

[2] Worked less than 35 hours a week.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Special Labor Force Report No. 107.

workers compared with 37 percent of the single women and 41 percent of the married women (husband present). Conversely, widowed, divorced, or separated women are less likely to work on part-time jobs. Thus only 23 percent of these women worked less than 35 hours a week in 1967 compared with 34 percent of the single women and 30 percent of the married women (husband present).

Table 26.—WORK EXPERIENCE OF WOMEN IN 1967, BY MARITAL STATUS

(Women 16 years of age and over)

Work experience	Total	Marital status: Single	Marital status: Married (husband present)	Marital status: Other[1]
Number	35,787,000	8,209,000	21,326,000	6,252,000
Percent with work experience[2]	51.3	68.5	48.3	45.9
		PERCENT DISTRIBUTION		
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Worked at full-time jobs:[3]				
50 to 52 weeks	42.1	36.7	41.3	52.3
27 to 49 weeks	13.0	9.6	14.2	13.4
1 to 26 weeks	15.4	19.7	14.9	11.5
Worked at part-time jobs[4]	29.4	34.0	29.6	22.8

[1] Widowed, divorced, or separated.
[2] Data are for civilian noninstitutional population.
[3] Worked 35 hours or more a week.
[4] Worked less than 35 hours a week.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Special Labor Force Report No. 107.

Work experience by occupation.—Certain occupations require continuity of performance and seldom are connected with seasonal activities. Women employed in these occupations are therefore usually full-time year-round workers. For example, in 1967 at least half of the women employed in four major occupation groups—nonfarm managers, officials, and proprietors (64 percent), craftsmen (54 percent), and clerical workers and professional workers (both 51 percent)—were on the job 50 to 52 weeks for 35 hours a week or more (table 27).

Other jobs provide employment opportunities for part-time work at peak periods during the day or certain days during the week. This is typical of farm work, private household work, and

Table 27.—WORK EXPERIENCE OF WOMEN IN 1967, BY MAJOR OCCUPATION GROUP

(Women 16 years of age and over)

Major occupation group of longest job	Number with work experience	Percent distribution of women with work experience				
		Total	Worked at full-time jobs[1]			Worked at part-time jobs[2]
			50–52 weeks	27–49 weeks	26 weeks or less	
Total	35,787,000	100.0	42.1	13.0	15.4	29.4
Professional, technical, kindred workers	4,611,000	100.0	50.5	13.7	12.4	23.4
Managers, officials, proprietors (except farm)	1,374,000	100.0	64.0	11.5	8.5	15.9
Clerical, kindred workers	11,579,000	100.0	51.2	11.9	14.4	22.5
Sales workers	2,739,000	100.0	28.2	7.3	12.3	52.3
Craftsmen, foremen, kindred workers	363,000	100.0	54.0	16.5	11.3	18.2
Operatives, kindred workers	5,502,000	100.0	44.9	21.6	21.3	12.2
Nonfarm laborers	209,000	100.0	32.5	18.2	29.2	20.1
Private household workers	2,426,000	100.0	17.9	6.4	10.4	65.3
Service workers (except private household)	5,785,000	100.0	31.6	13.2	18.6	36.4
Farmers, farm managers	106,000	100.0	38.7	5.7	2.8	52.9
Farm laborers, foremen	1,093,000	100.0	12.0	6.5	19.9	61.7

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[1] Worked 35 hours or more a week.

[2] Worked less than 35 hours a week.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Special Labor Force Report No. 107.

sales work. For example, in 1967 at least half of the women with work experience in four major occupation groups—private household workers, farm laborers and foremen, farmers and farm managers, and sales workers—worked less than 35 hours a week. In fact, among private household workers and farm laborers and foremen, almost two-thirds worked part time.

Information on part-year or part-time employment of women by detailed occupations is available only from the decennial census.[22] Even though the data collected concerning work experience in 1959 are not current, they provide some indication of the detailed occupations in which part-time or part-year employment frequently occurs.

The decennial data show that some occupations are typically both part year and part time. For example, women giving dancing and music lessons or teaching in special schools such as kindergartens, nursery schools, adult education centers, and driver-training schools, often work only a few hours a day or in the evening and usually work only part of the year. Moreover, women working as demonstrators and door-to-door salesmen usually work less than a full week and often work seasonally.

In other occupations part-year work is prevalent. Two-thirds or more of the women working in 1959 as elementary and secondary school teachers; operatives in canning and preserving of fruits, vegetables, and seafood; counter and fountain workers; and waitresses, among others, were employed less than 50 weeks a year. Most schools operate on a 9-month schedule, and canneries and packing plants employ most of their operatives only for the harvesting season. Moreover, work in eating and drinking places and in hotels and motels is often seasonal.

Finally, there are some detailed occupations in which women usually work less than 35 hours a week. These include attendant and assistant in libraries, babysitter, laundress, and charwoman and cleaner. More than half of all attendants and assistants in libraries worked less than 35 hours a week in 1959. Women in this occupation work at peak periods—after school hours and in the evening—or as replacements for full-time workers in libraries open 6 days a week. Two-thirds of the babysitters worked less than 35 hours a week in 1959, and half worked less than 15 hours a week. Much of the work done by charwomen and cleaners is performed after office hours and does not require an 8-hour day.

Work experience of white and nonwhite women.—A larger proportion of nonwhite than of white women seek and hold jobs. In 1967, 59 and 50 percent, respectively, had work experience (table 28). In addition, nonwhite women are more likely to work part year. To some extent this is due to the difficulty they experience in finding full-time year-round work. Of the women who worked in 1967, 32 percent of nonwhite women worked at full-time jobs on part-year schedules compared with 28 percent of white women. Conversely, relatively more white women than nonwhite women were on the job full time the year round (42 and 40 percent, respectively).

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[22] U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census: "U.S. Census of Population: 1960. Occupational Characteristics, PC(2)—7A."

There were also variations in the work experience of white and nonwhite women workers by age group. Among women 25 years of age and over, relatively more nonwhite women than white women worked at some time in 1967. The proportions were fairly similar among women 20 to 24 years of age, but among teenagers relatively fewer nonwhite than white girls had some work experience. In every age group except those 25 through 44 years, a larger proportion of white women than nonwhite women were full-time year-round workers. Relatively more nonwhite women than white women held part-time jobs in the group 45 years of age and over.

35. Employed Women by Part-Time and Full-Time Status

The Bureau of Labor Statistics publishes another series of figures (both monthly and annual averages) on part-time and full-time employment of women and men based on the current household survey. These figures differ from those shown under work experience, since they relate solely to nonagricultural employment. Moreover, only persons working on part-time and full-time schedules at the time of the monthly survey are counted. Persons who worked less than 35 hours a week because of bad weather, industrial dispute, vacation, illness, holiday, or other noneconomic reasons are included with those on full-time schedules who worked 35 hours or more a week. Persons on part-time schedules are primarily those who worked part time for economic reasons (slack work, material shortages, repairs to plant or equipment, start or termination of job during the week, and inability to find full-time work) and those who usually work part time for other reasons (also called voluntary part time).

Seventy-four percent of the 25,412,000 women employed in nonagricultural industries in 1968 were on full-time schedules (table 29). About 23 percent were employed part time by choice, and the remainder worked part time involuntarily. In contrast, 92 percent

Table 28.—WORK EXPERIENCE OF WOMEN IN 1967, BY COLOR AND AGE

(Women 16 years of age and over)

Age	Women in the population		Percent distribution of women with work experience				
				Worked at full-time jobs[1]			Worked at part-time jobs[2]
	Number	Percent with work experience	Total	50–52 weeks	27–49 weeks	1–26 weeks	
			WHITE				
Total	62,132,000	50.4	100.0	42.4	12.7	15.2	29.6
16 to 19 years	6,022,000	61.3	100.0	10.3	7.8	27.4	54.6
20 to 24 years	6,714,000	71.2	100.0	37.9	16.7	26.4	18.9
25 to 44 years	20,990,000	53.6	100.0	44.5	14.0	13.9	27.7
45 to 64 years	18,842,000	54.5	100.0	55.5	11.9	7.6	25.0
65 years and over	9,564,000	13.6	100.0	29.7	7.8	11.7	50.9
			NONWHITE				
Total	7,599,000	59.1	100.0	40.2	14.7	16.8	28.3
16 to 19 years	950,000	49.8	100.0	8.2	5.1	40.4	46.3
20 to 24 years	938,000	69.2	100.0	33.0	22.8	26.8	17.4
25 to 44 years	2,887,000	67.5	100.0	47.3	16.7	14.4	21.6
45 to 64 years	2,024,000	63.2	100.0	46.9	12.3	7.9	32.9
65 years and over	800,000	17.8	100.0	20.4	4.9	4.9	69.7

[1] Worked 35 hours or more a week.

[2] Worked less than 35 hours a week.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Special Labor Force Report No. 107.

Table 29.—WOMEN AT WORK IN NONAGRICULTURAL INDUSTRIES, BY FULL- AND PART-TIME STATUS AND SELECTED CHARACTERISTICS, 1968[1]

(Women 16 years of age and over)

Characteristics	Number of women	Parent distribution of women at work			
		Total	On full-time schedules	On part-time schedules for—	
				Economic reasons[2]	Other reasons
Total	25,412,000	100.0	74.0	3.5	22.5
Age:					
16 and 17 years	890,000	100.0	19.4	6.2	74.4
18 and 19 years	1,505,000	100.0	67.7	5.3	27.0
20 to 24 years	3,708,000	100.0	82.2	3.3	14.5
25 to 44 years	9,605,000	100.0	76.1	3.0	20.9
45 to 64 years	8,840,000	100.0	77.2	3.6	19.3
65 years and over	865,000	100.0	50.3	3.5	46.2
Marital status:					
Single	5,840,000	100.0	72.3	3.6	24.1
Married (husband present)	14,661,000	100.0	72.9	3.2	23.9
Other[3]	4,911,000	100.0	79.3	4.2	16.5
Color:					
White	22,266,000	100.0	74.1	3.0	22.9
Nonwhite	3,146,000	100.0	73.5	7.2	19.3

[1] Annual average.

[2] Includes slack work, job-changing during week, etc.

[3] Widowed, divorced, or separated.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Employment and Earnings, January 1969.

of the men were on full-time schedules, and only 6 percent worked part time voluntarily.

Part-time and full-time employment by selected characteristics.—Full-time employment is characteristic of most women 18 to 64 years of age. In 1968 about 77 percent of all women in this broad age group were on full-time schedules. Full-time work was most prevalent (82 percent) among women 20 to 24 years of age. On the other hand, girls under 18 years of age and women 65 years of age and over are the most likely to seek part-time work —74 percent of girls under 18 years of age and 46 percent of women 65 years of age and over worked part time by choice in 1968.

Women who are widowed, divorced, or separated from their husbands are the most likely to work full time—79 percent were on full-time schedules in 1968, and only 16 percent worked part time voluntarily. On the other hand, 24 percent of the single women worked part time by choice. It must be remembered, however, that this group includes most of the more than 662,000 girls under 18 years of age who worked part time voluntarily.

About the same proportion of nonwhite and white women worked on full-time schedules in 1968—73 percent compared with 74 percent. However, 7 percent of the nonwhite women and only 3 percent of the white women worked part time for economic reasons. As a result, the proportion of white women who worked part time by choice (23 percent) was slightly higher than the proportion of nonwhite women (19 percent).

Interest among jobseekers in full- or part-time work.—Women and teenagers are more inclined to seek part-time work than are men 20 years of age and over. Of the 1,397,000 women looking for work in 1968, 27 percent sought part-time jobs (table 30). The percentage looking for part-time work was almost twice as high for girls 16 to 21 years of age (34 percent) as for women 22 to 24 years of age (18 percent). But the proportion of unemployed looking for part-time work was highest among teenage boys (47 percent). This was in contrast to only 10 percent among men 20 years of age and over.

Eighty-six percent of all girls 16 to 21 years of age who were both attending school and looking for work in 1968 looked for part-time jobs. Many unemployed women 55 years of age and over also preferred part-time work (32 percent). On the other hand, only 22 percent of unemployed women 25 to 54 years of age sought part-time work.

Table 30.—UNEMPLOYED PERSONS LOOKING FOR FULL- OR PART-TIME WORK, BY AGE, 1968[1]

(Persons 16 years of age and over)

Age	Looking for full-time work		Looking for part-time work		Looking for part-time work as a percent of unemployed in each group
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	
UNEMPLOYED PERSONS					
Total	2,138,000	100.0	679,000	100.0	24.1
Men	1,124,000	52.6	296,000	43.6	20.8
Women	1,014,000	47.4	383,000	56.4	27.4
UNEMPLOYED WOMEN, BY AGE					
Total	1,014,000	100.0	383,000	100.0	27.4
16 to 21 years	379,000	37.4	193,000	50.4	33.7
Major activities:					
Attending school	19,000	1.9	121,000	31.6	86.4
All other	360,000	35.5	72,000	18.8	16.7
22 to 24 years	102,000	10.1	22,000	5.7	17.7
25 to 54 years	455,000	44.9	132,000	34.5	22.5
55 years and over	78,000	7.7	36,000	9.4	31.6

[1] Annual average.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Employment and Earnings, January 1969.

Another measure of unemployment in relation to part-time and full-time work comes from data[23] relating to the part-time and the full-time labor force. These data show that unemployment is generally higher among part-time workers than among full-time workers.

The unemployment rate for adult women (20 years of age and over) working part time in 1968 was 4 percent. The unemployment rate among adult men on part-time jobs was even higher—4.9 percent. On the other hand, adult men who were full-time workers had a much lower unemployment rate (2 percent) than did adult women on full-time jobs (3.7 percent). Unlike other workers, teenagers who were part-time workers had a lower unemployment rate (12.3 percent) than those who worked full time (13 percent).

36. Unemployed Women

Unemployed women—those in the labor force but not able to find work—averaged 1.4 million in 1968. The unemployment rate for women 16 years of age and over was 4.8 percent. This was substantially higher than the 2.9 percent unemployment rate among men. Women not only have a higher unemployment rate than men, but the gap has been widening in recent years.

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[23] U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Employment and Earnings, January 1969.

One of the reasons for women's continued high unemployment rate is that they move in and out of the labor force more frequently than men do. A recently instituted analysis of reasons why unemployed persons are looking for work showed that in 1968 the percentage of unemployed women 20 years of age and over who were labor force reentrants (43 percent) was double that of men (21 percent) (table 31). On the other hand, only 35 percent of the unemployed women but 60 percent of the unemployed men had lost their last jobs involuntarily.

Table 31.—PERCENT DISTRIBUTION OF THE UNEMPLOYED AND UNEMPLOYMENT RATES, BY SEX AND REASON FOR UNEMPLOYMENT, 1968[1]

(Persons 20 years of age and over)

Reason for unemployment	Women	Men
PERCENT DISTRIBUTION		
Total unemployed:		
Number	985,000	993,000
Percent	100.0	100.0
Lost last job	34.7	60.4
Left last job	17.0	16.8
Reentered labor force	42.9	20.7
Never worked before	5.6	2.2
UNEMPLOYMENT RATE		
Total unemployment rate	3.8	2.2
Job-loser rate	1.3	1.3
Job-leaver rate	.6	.4
Reentrant rate	1.6	.4
New entrant rate	.2	(2)

[1] Annual average.

[2] Not reported where base is less than 50,000.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Employment and Earnings, January 1969.

Unemployment associated with reentry into the labor force is much less responsive to improved economic conditions than unemployment due to job loss. Between June 1964 and December 1968, the unemployment rates of women 20 years of age and over declined quite sharply—from 2.2 to 1.1 percent—for job losers, but only slightly—from 1.6 to 1.3 percent—for women reentrants.[24]

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[24] U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Special Labor Force Report No. 78 and Employment and Earnings, January 1969.

During the same period, unemployment among men 20 years of age and over also dropped markedly—from 2.3 to 1.1 percent—for job losers, but only slightly—from 0.6 to 0.5 percent—for the reentrants.

Because many more women than men seek reentry into the labor force, women's total rate of unemployment declined less (from 5.2 to 3 percent) than men's (from 3.6 to 1.9 percent) over the 4-year period.

The higher unemployment rate among women is also the result of the more restrictive hiring practices that affect women, whether they are low-skilled workers with only limited education or highly skilled professionals with much education. Unemployment is a problem for women in almost all occupations and at all ages, but for some groups it is a far more serious problem than it is for others. For girls and women who are members of families living in poverty or for those who must support themselves and others, unemployment is as tragic as it is for male heads of families.

Trends in unemployment rates.—Beginning with 1948, women's unemployment rates generally have been higher than those of men, except in 1958 when both sexes had the same rate—a high of 6.8 percent, reflecting the 1957–58 recession (table 32). During the next recession in 1961, the unemployment rate of men reached 6.4 percent, which was slightly below the 1958 rate. In contrast, women's unemployment rate rose to 7.2 percent in 1958. From then on, almost continuously unemployment has declined less for women than for men. As a result, the greatest gaps between men's and women's unemployment rates during the 1947–68 period occurred in the most recent years: 2.1 percentage points in 1967 and 1.9 percentage points in 1968.

Unemployment by marital status.—From the standpoint of marital status, the highest rate of unemployment exists among single women. More than one-third of the single women workers are teenagers, and many are entering the labor force for the first time. In March 1967, the date of the latest labor force survey by marital status,[25] 5.9 percent of the single women workers were unemployed. The rates were 4.5 percent for married women (husband present) and 4.4 percent for the group of widowed, divorced, or separated women.

Unemployment by family status.—The unemployment rate was 4.6 percent in March 1967 among the women in the labor force who were heads of families.[26] This was slightly higher than the rate for wives (4.5 percent) and considerably higher than for men family heads (2.1 percent). Since only about a third of the women family heads who were unemployed had another family earner, their joblessness could be expected to cause real hardship for their families.

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[25] U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Special Labor Force Report No. 94.

Table 32.—UNEMPLOYMENT RATES OF WOMEN AND MEN, 1947–68 [1]

(Persons 16 years of age and over)

Year	Women	Men
1968	4.8	2.9
1967	5.2	3.1
1966	4.8	3.2
1965	5.5	4.0
1964	6.2	4.6
1963	6.5	5.2
1962	6.2	5.2
1961	7.2	6.4
1960	5.9	5.4
1959	5.9	5.3
1958	6.8	6.8
1957	4.7	4.1
1956	4.8	3.8
1955	4.9	4.2
1954	6.0	5.3
1953	3.3	2.8
1952	3.6	2.8
1951	4.4	2.8
1950	5.7	5.1
1949	6.0	5.9
1948	4.1	3.6
1947	3.7	4.0

[1] Annual averages.

NOTE.—Data for years prior to 1960 are not strictly comparable with later data, since they exclude Alaska and Hawaii and because of the introduction of decennial censuses into the estimating procedure in 1953 and 1962.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Employment and Earnings, January 1969.

Unemployment by age.—By age group the highest unemployment rate for women in 1968 occurred among those 16 to 19 years old (chart L). The rates then progressively declined for each age group, with the lowest rate prevailing for women 55 to 64 years of age (table 33). Although teenagers' unemployment was the highest, it was generally of short duration. Few girls were unemployed longer than 4 weeks, but some might have had several periods of unemployment in the year. Older women's unemployment, in contrast, was of longer duration; and the older the women were, the longer they had to search for a job.

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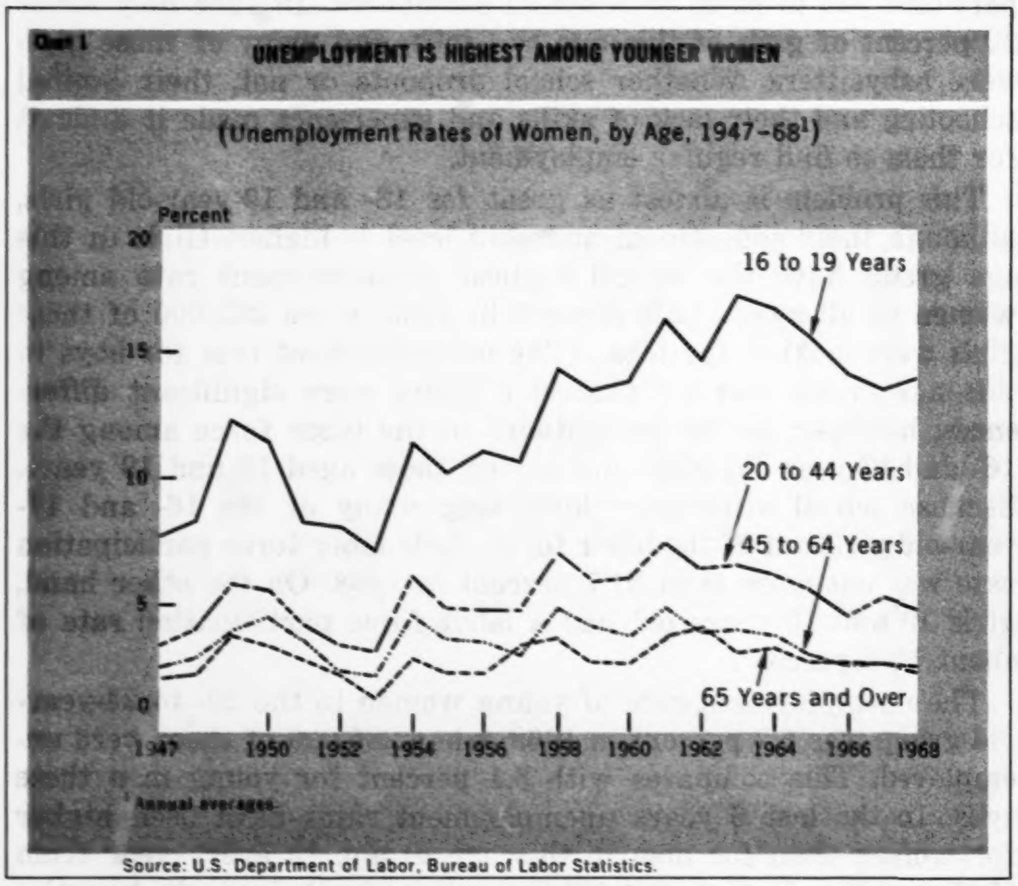
[26] U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: "Unemployment in the American Family." *In* Monthly Labor Review, October 1968.



Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Table 33.—UNEMPLOYMENT RATES OF WOMEN AND MEN, BY AGE, 1968[1]

(Persons 16 years of age and over)

Age	Women	Men
Total	4.8	2.9
16 to 19 years	14.0	11.6
16 and 17 years	15.9	13.9
18 and 19 years	12.9	9.7
20 to 24 years	6.7	5.1
25 to 34 years	4.7	1.9
35 to 44 years	3.4	1.6
45 to 54 years	2.4	1.6
55 to 64 years	2.2	1.9
65 years and over	2.7	2.9

[1] Annual average.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Employment and Earnings, January 1969.

In the youngest age group—16 and 17 years old—179,000 girls on the average were looking for jobs in 1968. This was an unemployment rate of 15.9 percent compared with 13.9 percent for boys of the same age.

Most of these young girls were seeking their first job, usually a part-time job to fit in with school attendance. In 1968 only about 32 percent of girls of this age had jobs, and many of these girls were babysitters. Whether school dropouts or not, their limited schooling and their lack of skills and experience made it difficult for them to find regular employment.

This problem is almost as great for 18- and 19-year-old girls, although their educational and skill level is higher. Girls in this age group have the second highest unemployment rate among women of all ages—12.9 percent in 1968, when 233,000 of these girls were looking for jobs. (The unemployment rate for boys in this age group was 9.7 percent.) There were significant differences, however, in the percentages in the labor force among the 16- and 17-year-old girls and among those aged 18 and 19 years. Because school attendance laws keep many of the 16- and 17-year-old girls out of the labor force, their labor force participation rate was not more than 31.7 percent in 1968. On the other hand, girls 18 and 19 years old had a labor force participation rate of about 52.4 percent.

The unemployment rate of young women in the 20- to 24-year-old group was 6.7 percent in 1968, when 285,000 of them were unemployed. This compares with 5.1 percent for young men these ages. In the last 6 years unemployment rates have been higher for women than for men in this age group. In every year from 1947 to 1961 (except for 1951), women in their early twenties had relatively less unemployment than young men had.

During the past two decades unemployment rates have been consistently higher for women than for men in the 25- to 44-year age bracket. However, at ages 45 to 54, when women's participation in the labor force has become increasingly high, their unemployment rates were not much higher than men's until 1963, when relatively many more women than men were unable to locate a job. Women 55 years of age and older have about the same unemployment rates as men in this age group.

Special unemployment problems of teenagers.—Among the 572,000 girls 16 to 21 years old who were unemployed in 1968, 1 out of 3 was looking for part-time work (table 30). This was a greater proportion than the more than 1 out of 4 of all unemployed women 16 years of age and over and 1 out of 5 of all unemployed men who were seeking part-time employment in that year. Teenage girls, of course, seek part-time work mainly to fit in with school attendance. The unemployed girls in this age group who were looking for part-time work constituted almost 9 out of 10 among the students as compared with 1 out of 6 among those not attending school.

Teenage girls may encounter difficulties when looking not only for part-time jobs but also for their first steady jobs, which in some instances may prove to be more transitory than steady. Thus data for 1968 show that among 16- to 19-year-old unemployed youth, 39 percent had never worked before.[27] Among those who had worked, about 1 out of 4 had lost their jobs through circumstances beyond their control, such as slack work, no more work available, or the firm had moved or gone out of business. In this group of former workers, less than 1 out of 5 had left their jobs voluntarily, and more than 1 out of 2 were reentering the labor force, probably after a period of school attendance.

"Hidden" unemployment and "underemployment".—In addition to reported unemployment, there is also concealed unemployment in all age groups, but especially among older workers. Those no longer seeking work are considered outside the labor force statistically and not counted among the unemployed. Since no account is taken of the many who have given up jobhunting because it seemed hopeless, unemployment rates of older women especially may be deceptively low. Of the 263,000 women 45 years of age and over who were reported to be unemployed in 1968, about 8 percent had been looking for work for 6 months or longer. Many more thousands may have given up looking.

The "hidden" unemployed among women are probably the least employable in terms of education, skills, industry attachment, or job vacancies in their communities. Yet unemployment could bear particularly hard on them. And it must be remembered that in many rural and generally depressed areas of this country, job opportunities may not exist.

There are still other women who have jobs but do not work as many hours or weeks as they would like. They are the "underemployed"—those who work part time or part year, but would prefer full-time year-round steady jobs if they could find them. These, too, are disadvantaged in terms of employment.

Unemployment of white and nonwhite women and girls.—Both white and nonwhite women generally have higher unemployment than their male counterparts (chart M). In 1961, however, nonwhite men workers had the highest unemployment rate (12.8 per-

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[27] U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Employment and Earnings, January 1969.

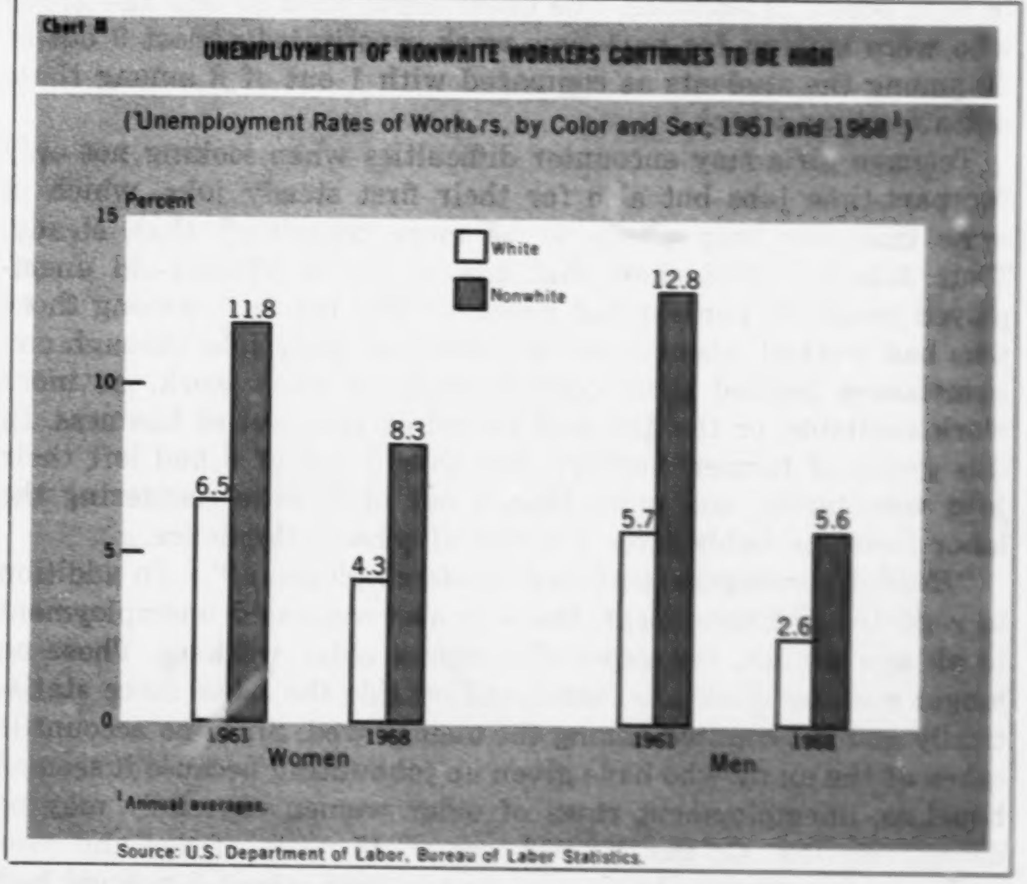

Chart 8

UNEMPLOYMENT OF NONWHITE WORKERS CONTINUES TO BE HIGH

(Unemployment Rates of Workers, by Color and Sex, 1961 and 1968 [1])

[1] Annual averages.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

cent); by 1968 their rate was down to 5.6 percent. But the improved employment situation affected nonwhite women workers less favorably. Their unemployment rate dropped less sharply—from 11.8 percent to 8.3 percent—during the 7-year period.

Compared with the unemployment rates of white women, those of nonwhite women present special aspects of severity and hardship (table 34). Not only are the unemployment rates of nonwhite teenage girls and women considerably higher than those of white at each age group (except women 65 years and over in 1968), but also unemployment is typically of longer duration. While the labor force participation rate of nonwhite teenage girls (35 percent) in 1968 was lower than that of white girls (43 percent), their unemployment rate was more than twice that of white girls—28.8 percent of nonwhite girls 16 to 19 years old were looking for work compared with 12.1 percent of white girls. The difference was even larger in the age group 16 and 17 years old—33.7 percent of nonwhite girls and 13.9 percent of white girls were unemployed.

Nonwhite girls in the age group 16 to 21 years who dropped out before completing high school constituted 41 percent of those

Table 34.—UNEMPLOYMENT RATES, BY SEX, AGE, AND COLOR, SELECTED YEARS, 1959–68 [1]

(Persons 16 years of age and over)

Age	1968		1967		1965		1963		1961		1959	
	White	Nonwhite	White	Nonwhite	White	Nonwhite	White	Nonwhite	White	Nonwhite	White	Nonwhite
					WOMEN							
Total	4.3	8.3	4.6	9.1	5.0	9.2	5.8	11.2	6.5	11.8	5.3	9.4
16 to 19 years	12.1	28.8	11.4	29.5	14.0	31.7	15.1	34.9	14.8	29.1	12.0	27.7
16 and 17 years	13.9	33.7	12.9	32.0	15.0	37.8	18.1	40.1	17.0	31.1	13.3	25.8
18 and 19 years	11.0	26.2	10.6	28.3	13.4	27.8	13.2	31.9	13.6	28.2	11.1	29.9
20 to 24 years	5.9	12.3	6.0	13.8	6.3	13.7	7.4	18.7	8.4	19.5	6.7	14.9
25 to 34 years	3.9	8.4	4.7	8.7	4.8	8.4	5.8	11.7	6.6	11.1	5.0	9.7
35 to 44 years	3.1	5.0	3.7	6.2	4.1	7.6	4.6	8.2	5.6	10.7	4.7	7.6
45 to 54 years	2.3	3.2	2.9	4.4	3.0	4.4	3.9	6.1	4.8	7.4	4.0	6.1
55 to 64 years	2.1	2.8	2.3	3.4	2.7	3.9	3.5	4.8	4.3	6.3	4.0	5.0
65 years and over	2.7	2.4	2.6	3.4	2.7	3.1	3.0	3.6	3.7	6.5	3.4	2.3
					MEN							
Total	2.6	5.6	2.7	6.0	3.6	7.4	4.7	10.5	5.7	12.8	4.6	11.5
16 to 19 years	10.1	22.1	10.7	23.9	12.9	22.9	15.9	27.3	15.7	26.7	14.0	25.2
16 and 17 years	12.3	26.6	12.7	28.9	14.7	27.1	17.8	27.0	16.5	31.0	15.0	22.3
18 and 19 years	8.2	19.0	9.0	20.1	11.4	20.2	14.2	27.4	15.1	23.9	13.0	27.2
20 to 24 years	4.6	8.3	4.2	8.0	5.9	9.3	7.8	15.5	10.0	15.3	7.5	16.3
25 to 34 years	1.7	3.8	1.9	4.4	2.6	6.2	3.9	9.5	4.9	12.9	3.8	12.3
35 to 44 years	1.4	2.9	1.6	3.1	2.3	5.1	2.9	8.0	4.0	10.7	3.2	8.9
45 to 54 years	1.5	2.5	1.8	3.4	2.3	5.1	3.3	7.1	4.4	10.2	3.7	7.9
55 to 64 years	1.7	3.6	2.2	4.1	3.1	5.4	4.0	7.4	5.3	10.5	4.2	8.7
65 years and over	2.8	4.0	2.7	5.1	3.4	5.2	4.1	10.1	5.2	9.4	4.5	8.4

[1] Annual averages.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor: Bureau of Labor Statistics, Employment and Earnings, January 1969; Manpower Administration, "Manpower Report of the President Including a Report on Manpower Requirements, Resources, Utilization, and Training." April 1968.

not enrolled in college in October 1967.[28] Those who drop out generally experience severe unemployment. Their unemployment rate in October 1967 was 30.1 percent. This is understandable because high school dropouts are least qualified for the jobs of today's complex society. It is to be expected, therefore, that nonwhite girls who were high school graduates had a relatively lower unemployment rate—21.6 percent. However, their unemployment was still far above average for all women (5.6 percent) for that month, assumedly because many had difficulty in obtaining the white-collar and other jobs to which they aspire and for which they may have been trained in high school. (Unemployment rates by educational attainment are discussed in chapter 4.)

37. Labor Turnover and Absenteeism

Labor turnover.—Labor turnover rates are influenced more by the skill level of the job, the age of the worker, the worker's record of job stability, and the worker's length of service with the employer than by the sex of the worker.[29] Comparisons of the absenteeism and labor turnover rates of men and women, therefore, need to be related to those in comparable jobs and circumstances if they are to be truly meaningful.

Of course, the worklife pattern of women—with many working for a few years after finishing school, leaving the labor force for marriage and childrearing, and returning to the labor force after their children are grown or reach school age—does increase the labor turnover rates for women. However, it is also true that men's rates are raised by their tendency to move from one job to another somewhat more often than women.[30]

Because comparative turnover rates of men and women are difficult to obtain, available statistics which combine data for different groups of workers have some value—as long as their limitations are recognized.

An analysis of labor turnover rates for factory workers during 1968 revealed an average quit rate of 26 per 1,000 women employees as against 22 per 1,000 men employees. These data are of special interest not only because the rate was just slightly higher for women than men but also because comparison of these results with those of an earlier study showed that factory women had become less inclined to quit their jobs than they formerly were.[31] This is probably because the proportion of older women workers has increased and women are more interested in continuous employment.

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[28] U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Special Labor Force Report No. 100.

[29] U.S. Department of Labor, Wage and Labor Standards Administration, Women's Bureau: "Facts About Women's Absenteeism and Labor Turnover." August 1969.

[30] U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Special Labor Force Report No. 35.

A U.S. Civil Service Commission study of relative voluntary separation (turnover) rates of women and men full-time career employees in the Federal Government during the period December 16, 1962, to February 2, 1963, showed that on an overall basis the separation rate for women was about 2½ times greater than that for men.[32] The higher rate for women is explained in part by the many women in the Federal civil service who (1) are under 25 years of age, (2) are in lower grade clerical jobs (particularly in the occupations of stenographer and typist, which have the highest turnover rates), and (3) have few years of Federal service. These groups have higher turnover rates than others regardless of sex. When the data for women and men are compared by age group, by broad occupation group, and by length of service, the differences in their relative turnover rates decrease.

A study of occupational mobility of individuals 18 years of age and over showed that in 1966 men changed occupations more frequently than women.[33] Ten percent of the men but only 7 percent of the women employed in January 1966 were working in an occupation different from the one they had held in January 1965. (This study may understate the mobility of the labor force, and especially of women, since it excluded those who left their jobs and were not employed in January 1966.)

Although occupation-changing was highest among young workers regardless of sex, the turnover rate was somewhat less for girls than for boys. Almost 1 out of 3 boys 18 and 19 years of age and more than 1 out of 4 young men 20 to 24 years of age who worked in January 1966 changed occupations at least once during the previous year. More than 1 out of 4 girls 18 and 19 years old and about 1 out of 7 young women 20 to 24 years of age changed occupations during the year. Many such young people shop for jobs as they start their work careers. Others are laid off because they lack the skills to command steady jobs or the seniority to protect them against involuntary separation.

Among women, occupational mobility rates varied little with marital status or color. However, women's occupation-changing had an inverse relationship with their length of time on the job. Of those with 1 year or less of service, 36 percent made an occupational change; of those with over 10 years' service, less than 1 percent made a change. By educational level, occupational changes occurred least frequently among women who had graduated from college and those who had 8 years of schooling or less. The former group presumably remained in the occupation for which they had trained; the latter group probably included many older women, who often found it difficult to locate new jobs.

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[31] U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: "Labor Turnover of Women Factory Workers, 1950–55." *In* Monthly Labor Review, August 1955.

[32] President's Commission on the Status of Women: Report of the Committee on Federal Employment, Appendix F. October 1963.

[33] U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Special Labor Force Report No. 84.

By major occupation group the 1965 rate of job-changing for women was highest among craftsmen, foremen, and kindred workers—a category which includes relatively few women. The next highest rates for women were among clerical workers, sales workers, and service workers (except private household). These three groups cover almost three-fifths of all employed women. Among men occupation-changing was most frequent for nonfarm laborers, followed in descending order by clerical workers, operatives, service workers, and craftsmen and foremen. Among professional and technical workers the occupation-changing rate was low for both women and men workers. Only 3 percent of the women and 6 percent of the men reported a profession different from the one held a year earlier.

Another measure of job stability is job tenure. A special study, exploring the length of time that workers had been employed continuously on the job each held in January 1966, showed that on the average women had spent 2.8 years on the current job as compared with 5.2 years for men.[34] Job tenure increased with age, but somewhat less for women than for men. In general, both women and men workers under 25 years of age had averaged 1 year or less on the current job. Among workers 25 to 44 years old, women had been with the same employer about 3 years on the average compared with 5 years for men. Among those 45 years old and over, the average job tenure for women was about 7 years—still considerably less than the 13 years for men.

By marital status it was found that single women had about the same job tenure as did men in the same age groups. After about age 45, single women tend to stay even longer with the same employer than men do. However, relatively few women remain single, and the job pattern of married women dominates the overall employment pattern for women. The average tenure in January 1966 for married women (3.1 years) was twice as high as for single women (1.6 years). The difference reflects the greater proportion of married women in age groups (35 years and over) with longer job tenure and the overwhelming percentage of single women in the youngest age groups, where job tenure is very low. The average time on the current job was also much longer for full-time women workers (3.3 years) than for part-time women workers (1.7 years).

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[34] U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Special Labor Force Report No. 77.

The average job tenure was exactly the same for nonwhite and white women. Also about the same proportion (20 percent) of nonwhite and of white women had held their current job for 10 years or more. A greater proportion of nonwhite women than white women are in service occupations where work is less steady than in the clerical occupations where white women are concentrated. This might be expected to result in a shorter average job tenure for nonwhite women, but this factor is offset by the more continuous association of nonwhite women with the labor force because of economic need, as reflected in their higher labor force participation rates.

A comparison of job tenure in January 1966 by major industry group showed that women workers in communications and public utilities had been with the same employer the longest on the average (4.6 years). The shortest average job tenure for women (about 2 years) was among those employed in wholesale and retail trade. Women factory workers had an average of 3.8 years of continuous job attachment. Among them, workers in the textile mill and the chemical products manufacturing industries had the longest average job tenures (5.2 and 4.9 years, respectively). On the other hand, women employed in the printing and publishing industry had one of the shortest average job tenures for women in the manufacturing industries (3 years).

By occupation the study indicated that women who had the greatest job stability were in occupations that require the most training or experience or that provide the least opportunity to make a move. Among the latter, for example, were women farm laborers and foremen, who had the next-to-highest average number of years (11.6) with the same employer. Many were unpaid workers on family farms, and more than two-fifths had spent more than 15 years on the current job. The total number was, of course, small. Also, characteristically, they were an older group. Equally small was the number of women farmers and farm managers, although they had the longest average tenure (21.6 years). Many of these were, of course, self-employed; and they were also an older group. Women employed as managers, officials, and proprietors, another older group, averaged 6.5 years on their current job. Women craftsmen had spent an average of 6.4 years on the job; operatives and kindred workers, 3.4 years.

Professional and technical workers, of whom 3 out of 5 had spent 5 years or less with the same employer, had a relatively low average job tenure of 3.5 years, partly because they were a somewhat younger group and partly because they had more opportunities for job changes. Clerical workers, also a younger group, averaged 2.7 years on the current job; service workers, including private household workers, less than 2 years. Service jobs are likely to be part time and part year in nature. It is not surprising, therefore, that more than 7 out of 10 women in private household and other service jobs had spent 5 years or less on the current job.

Absenteeism.—Like labor turnover, absenteeism is an important factor in determining labor costs. On the average women lose more workdays because of acute conditions than men do, but the reverse is true for chronic conditions such as heart trouble, arthritis, rheumatism, and orthopedic impairment. According to a recent study, employed persons 17 years of age and over lost an average of 3.1 days during the period July 1966 to June 1967 because of acute conditions (3.3 for women and 3 for men).[35]

When both types of conditions were counted, the worktime lost by persons 17 years of age and over because of illness or injury averaged 5.3 days for women and 5.4 days for men over the same period.

38. Multiple Jobholders

More than half a million women (576,000), or about 2 percent of all employed women, held more than one wage or salary job in May 1966 (table 35). The highest incidence of "moonlighting" (2.9 percent) was in age groups 14 to 17 years and 25 to 34 years. In the latter age group men also show the highest proportion of multiple jobholding. These are typically the years in which financial obligations are heavy. Among women the lowest proportions of multiple jobholders were in age groups 20 to 24 years (1.5 percent) and 18 and 19 years (1.6 percent). Women are much less likely to hold more than one job than are men. More than 3 million men, or 6.4 percent, were multiple jobholders in May 1966.

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[35] U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare: Vital and Health Statistics, Series 10, No. 43.

On their second job women averaged 9 hours a week compared with 14 hours for men. On the primary job women moonlighters were mainly clerical, professional and technical, or service workers (except private household). Most dual jobholders worked in a different industry or occupation on their secondary jobs.

The question is often raised whether moonlighters are depriving the unemployed of job opportunities. The May 1966 analysis indicates that this is not so. Comparatively few unemployed persons could or would take the secondary jobs held by dual jobholders. Most of these jobs are part time, and many require special qualifications or skills.

Table 35.—WOMEN WITH TWO OR MORE JOBS, BY OCCUPATION OF PRIMARY AND SECONDARY JOBS, MAY 1966

(Women 14 years of age and over)

Occupation group [1]	Number of women with 2 or more jobs	As percent of total women employed	Percent distribution	
			Primary job	Secondary job
All occupations	576,000	2.2	100.0	100.0
Professional, technical, kindred workers	123,000	3.5	21.4	18.4
Medical, other health workers	18,000	2.1	3.1	2.4
Teachers (except college)	57,000	3.8	9.9	3.6
Other professional, technical, kindred workers	48,000	4.1	8.3	12.3
Managers, officials, proprietors (except farm)	24,000	2.1	4.2	7.3
Clerical, kindred workers	171,000	2.1	29.7	22.2
Sales workers	30,000	1.7	5.2	10.2
Retail trade	21,000	1.3	3.6	8.3
Other sales workers	9,000	3.8	1.6	1.9
Craftsmen, foremen, kindred workers	11,000	4.7	1.9	.7
Operatives, kindred workers	38,000	.9	6.6	2.8
Nonfarm laborers	4,000	3.1	.7	---
Private household workers	23,000	1.1	4.0	12.3
Service workers (except private household)	111,000	2.7	19.3	19.6
Waitresses, cooks, bartenders	47,000	3.3	8.2	9.2
Other service workers	64,000	2.4	11.1	10.4
Farmers, farm managers	3,000	2.2	.5	4.3
Farm laborers, foremen	38,000	6.2	6.6	2.1

[1] Occupation of primary job.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Special Labor Force Report No. 90.

39. *Women as Members of Unions*

An estimated 3,689,000[36] women were members of national and international labor unions in the United States in 1966.[37] This was an increase of about 276,000 since 1964. Almost 1 out of 5 union members in 1966 was a woman.

About 1 out of 7 women in the Nation's labor force, but 1 out of 4 men workers, belonged to a union. The relatively low proportion of women who are union members reflects to some extent the nature of women's employment and the industries in which they work. Women who expect to remain in the labor force only a few years or who are part-time or part-year workers may feel less inclined to join a union than do men who expect to work during most of their lives. Moreover, the largest number of women in the labor force are clerical and service workers and thus are in industries in which union organization is less extensive than among the blue-collar workers of manufacturing industries.

Among 190 unions participating in the 1966 survey, 140 indicated that they had women members. The highest membership figures for women were reported by unions which have collective bargaining contracts in industries that normally employ large numbers of women (table 36). About 18 percent of all women members, for example, were in two unions in the apparel industry (International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union and Amalgamated Clothing Workers of America). Other unions that reported a sizable female membership were the International Brotherhood of Electrical Workers, the Retail Clerks International Association, and the Hotel and Restaurant Employees and Bartenders International Union.

In addition, there were relatively large numbers of women members in several big industrial and transportation unions, although women represented only a small portion of their total membership. This group of unions included automobile and machinery manufacturing.

There are no unions exclusively for women. In four unions women constituted at least 80 percent of the membership, and their combined total in these unions reached 412,000 in 1966. In 107 unions women's membership ranged from none to less than 10 percent. On the other hand, women formed at least half of the membership in 26 unions, which in turn accounted for more than two-fifths of women's union membership.

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[36] May include a few members living outside the United States.

[37] U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: "Directory of National and International Labor Unions in the United States, 1967." Bull. 1596. 1968.

Table 36.—WOMEN MEMBERS OF LABOR UNIONS,[1] 1966

Union	Approximate number of women
American Federation of Labor and Congress of Industrial Organizations:	
International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union	364,131
Amalgamated Clothing Workers of America	286,500
International Brotherhood of Electrical Workers	262,500
Retail Clerks International Association	250,157
Hotel and Restaurant Employees and Bartenders International Union	202,488
Communications Workers of America	176,614
International Union, United Automobile, Aerospace and Agricultural Implement Workers of America	168,324
International Union of Electrical, Radio and Machine Workers	112,000
Building Service Employees' International Union	97,580
International Association of Machinists and Aerospace Workers	83,616
Textile Workers Union of America	72,800
United Federation of Postal Clerks	57,258
Brotherhood of Railway, Airline and Steamship Clerks, Freight Handlers, Express and Station Employes	54,000
American Federation of Government Employees	50,000
Office and Professional Employees International Union	49,000
Amalgamated Meat Cutters and Butcher Workmen of North America	45,898
International Brotherhood of Bookbinders	37,056
United Packinghouse, Food and Allied Workers	28,350
United Shoe Workers of America	27,030
Retail, Wholesale and Department Store Union	(2)
American Federation of Teachers	(2)
United Rubber, Cork, Linoleum and Plastic Workers of America	(2)
United Steelworkers of America	(2)
Unaffiliated:	
Alliance of Independent Telephone Unions	56,250
United Electrical, Radio and Machine Workers of America	41,750
International Union of District 50, United Mine Workers of America	27,840
International Brotherhood of Teamsters, Chauffeurs, Warehousemen and Helpers of America	(2)

[1] Unions reporting 25,000 or more women members.

[2] Data not reported, but number of women believed to be significant.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: "Directory of National and International Labor Unions in the United States, 1967." Bull. 1596. 1968.

In terms of affiliation, it is estimated that 88 percent of the women members belonged to the AFL–CIO and 12 percent belonged to unaffiliated unions in 1966.

Womanpower Reserve

Women 16 years of age and over who are not in the labor force make up a womanpower reserve—a potential source of additional workers who might be needed in an expanding economy or in time of national emergency. Some of these are highly educated, and many have received on-the-job training during previous work experience.

Women not in the labor force averaged 41 million in 1968 and were more than three-fourths of all persons who did not work or look for work. A majority of women not in the labor force in 1968 were not working because of home responsibilities. Other women, more than half of whom were at least 70 years of age, were unable to work, presumably because of illness or disability. Another group, most of whom were teenagers, were attending school.

The average number of women not in the labor force during 1968 and their reasons for nonparticipation were as follows:

	Women not in the labor force	
	Number	*Percent*
Total	40,976,000	100
Keeping house	35,023,000	86
Going to school	3,408,000	8
Unable to work	839,000	2
Other reasons	1,705,000	4

A more practical estimate of the supply of women actually available for increasing the Nation's work force would exclude teenagers and young adults who are attending school, mothers of young children, and elderly women who may not be able to work because of illness or disability. Even if these groups are excluded, the number of women in the labor reserve exceeds that of men—making women the largest single source for labor force expansion.

Interest in learning more about the reasons for nonparticipation in the labor force stimulated a special survey of persons who said they wanted a job although not looking for work.[38] When surveyed in September 1966, about 8 percent of the 43.7 million women not in the labor force at that time said they would like to have a regular full-time or part-time job. Their main reason for not seeking work, as stated by about 3 out of 10 of the women, was "family responsibilities." Four other important reasons, each given by more than 1 out of 10 women, were "ill health or physical disability," "in school," "believed it would be impossible to find work," and "inability to arrange child care."

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[38] U.S Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Special Labor Force Report No. 86.

The majority of women who indicated they were unable to arrange child care were between 25 and 55 years of age. Presumably they would be available for work if this specific problem were solved. Of those who believed it impossible to find work, however, many were also either in ill health, in school, or tied down with family responsibilities. Therefore, many actually were not readily available for work.

In September 1966 men constituted about one-fourth of all persons who were neither working nor looking for work. The men's reasons for nonparticipation were quite different in order of importance from those of women. Of the men who said they wanted a job although not looking for work, more than two-fifths listed "in school" and three-tenths, "ill health or physical disability."

2

WOMEN'S EMPLOYMENT BY OCCUPATIONS AND INDUSTRIES

Principal Occupations of Women

The considerable rise in women's employment in recent years has been accompanied by an increase in the number and variety of women's occupational opportunities. The expansion of services to individuals and to communities opened up new opportunities in the health and allied medical fields, in public and private social services, in research and educational services, in personal services, and in data processing and computer programing. The automation of processes in factories, stores, and other businesses has expanded the need for technical and clerical personnel. The growing complexity of business and industry has strengthened the demand for technical and professional specialists. As a result, the number of women in new fields of employment is expanding despite the fact that women are still concentrated in relatively few occupations. And the trend toward expansion is expected to continue as more girls become aware of the variety of career choices open to them and seek the required education or training.

Occupations of persons in the labor force may be classified according to the type of work performed or by broad occupation categories. Both are significant in any discussion of the current employment of women and the shifts in women's working patterns.

40. Type of Work

The wide disparity between the concentration of women and men workers by type of work has contributed to the difference in the rate of growth of their employment, in the relative number working part time or part year, and in their earnings. Of the 27.9 million women 14 years of age and over employed in April 1968, almost three-fifths were employed in white-collar jobs (table 37). Almost one-fourth were in service work. The remainder were divided about 8 to 1 between blue-collar work and farm work. In contrast, almost one-half of the men were employed in blue-collar work, and two-fifths were in white-collar jobs. The remainder were about equally divided between farm work and service work.

The fact that women are highly concentrated in white-collar and service work—the fastest growing types of work in recent decades—accounts in part for the substantial rise in the number and proportion of women in the labor force, whereas men's employment has not kept pace with the growth in the adult male population since 1950. At the same time the employment of a relatively large segment of all women workers in service work and certain kinds of white-collar work—jobs that often are part time or part year—accounts to some extent for the fact that women are more likely than men to work less than a full week or less than a full year. Similarly, the difference between the average earnings of men and women is affected by the greater concentration of women (23 percent) than men (7 percent) in service jobs which are typically low paid.

Table 37.—EMPLOYMENT, BY SEX AND TYPE OF WORK, 1940, 1950, AND 1968[1]

(Persons 14 years of age and over)

Type of work	Number (in thousands)			Percent distribution		
	1968	1950	1940	1968	1950	1940
WOMEN						
Total	27,896	17,176	11,920	100.0	100.0	100.0
White-collar work	16,415	8,858	5,380	58.8	51.6	45.1
Blue-collar work	4,563	3,464	2,400	16.4	20.2	20.1
Service work	6,361	3,939	3,450	22.8	22.9	28.9
Farm work	555	916	690	2.0	5.3	5.8
MEN						
Total	48,351	41,492	34,180	100.0	100.0	100.0
White-collar work	19,256	13,522	9,710	39.8	32.6	28.4
Blue-collar work	22,661	19,108	14,390	46.9	46.1	42.1
Service work	3,323	2,757	2,160	6.9	6.6	6.3
Farm work	3,111	6,104	7,920	6.4	14.7	23.2

[1] Data are for April of each year.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Employment and Earnings, May 1968 and May 1960, and Monthly Labor Review, August 1947. U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census: Current Population Reports, P-57, No. 94.

The proportion of all women workers engaged in white-collar work was larger in 1968 than in 1940—having reached more than one-half by 1950. On the other hand, over the 28-year period the proportion engaged in blue-collar work declined from 20 to 16 percent; in service work, from 29 to 23 percent; and in farm work, from 6 to 2 percent. Among men, the biggest changes were an increase in the proportion engaged in white-collar work and a tremendous drop in both the number and the proportion in farm work.

41. Major Occupation Groups

The occupations of persons in the labor force are divided into 11 broad categories in monthly figures collected by the Bureau of the Census and published by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. More employed women 16 years of age and over (34 percent) were in clerical work in April 1968 than in any other major occupation group (table 38). The next largest group was service workers (except private household), followed by operatives. Professional workers were the fourth largest group, with sales, private household, and managerial workers following in that order. A total of less than 4 percent were farm workers, craftsmen, or nonfarm laborers.

Beginning in January 1967, the regular employment data published by the Bureau of Labor Statistics have included persons 16 years of age and over, whereas prior data included persons 14 years of age and over. This change reflects the fact that virtually all 14- and 15-year-old boys and girls have been enrolled in school in recent years and that those who do work are usually only part-time or part-year workers. Selected data on 14- and 15-year-old workers are published in separate tabulations.

As might be expected, the occupational distribution of young girls is very different from that of older women. Almost three-fourths of the 14- and 15-year-old girls employed in April 1968 were in private household jobs, most of them as babysitters (table 39). When figures for this age group are included with those of older women workers for the purpose of making comparisons with earlier years, the proportion of women in private household work is about one percentage point higher and the proportions in clerical, professional, and operative positions are less than half a percentage point lower than when only women 16 years of age and over are counted.

Women's employment has expanded in nearly all of the major occupation groups since 1940. The greatest growth has been in the number of clerical workers—from 2.5 million women 14 years of age and over in 1940 to 9.3 million in 1968, more than a three-

Table 38.—MAJOR OCCUPATION GROUPS AND SELECTED OCCUPATIONS OF EMPLOYED WOMEN, APRIL 1968

(Women 16 years of age and over)

Major occupation group or selected occupation	Number (in thousands)	Percent distribution	As pecent of tal empyed
Total	27,495	100.0	36.6
Professional, technical workers [1]	4,016	14.6	38.6
Medical, other health workers	1,006	3.7	61.6
Teachers (except college)	1,668	6.1	70.9
Managers, officials, proprietors (except farm) [1]	1,202	4.4	5.7
Salaried	821	3.0	5.1
Self-employed (retail trade)	236	.9	2.7
Clerical workers [1]	9,274	33.7	2.7
Stenographers, typists, secretaries	3,322	12.1	8.8
Sales workers [1]	1,883	6.8	1.2
Retail trade	1,678	6.1	0.8
Craftsmen, foremen	311	1.1	3.2
Operatives [1]	4,125	15.0	0.0
Durable goods manufacturing	1,304	4.7	7.6
Nondurable goods manufacturing	2,042	7.4	4.2
Nonfarm laborers	116	.4	.4
Nonfarm laborers	116	.4	.1
Private household workers	1,728	6.3	9
Service workers (except private household) [1]	4,300	15.6	.1
Waitresses, cooks, bartenders	1,565	5.7	.1
Farmers, farm managers	82	.3	.8
Farm laborers, foremen	457	1.7	.3
Paid workers	100	.4	.3
Unpaid family workers	358	1.3	

[1] Includes women in occupations not shown separately in this category.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Employment and Earni May 1968.

fold increase (table 40). The clerical workers of 1968, howev differ in many respects from the clerical workers of 1940. The plication of technological developments to many clerical jobs raised the level of skill required and the educational traini needed. Opportunities for unskilled workers have narrowed, a there is an increasing demand for workers with the broad edu tion and training that allow for flexibility.

The number of women service workers (except private hou hold) also has more than tripled since 1940. Included among reasons for this tremendous growth are the increase in the po

Table 39.—MAJOR OCCUPATION GROUPS OF EMPLOYED GIRLS 14 AND 15 YEARS OF AGE, APRIL 1968

Major occupation group	Number	Percent distribution
Total	401,000	100.0
Professional, technical workers	6,000	1.5
Managers, officials, proprietors (except farm)	1,000	.2
Clerical workers	15,000	3.7
Sales workers	18,000	4.5
Craftsmen, foremen	------	----
Operatives	5,000	1.2
Nonfarm laborers	7,000	1.7
Private household workers	293,000	73.1
Service workers (except private household)	41,000	10.2
Farmers, farm managers	------	----
Farm laborers, foremen	15,000	3.7

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Employment and Earnings, May 1968.

lation, especially among older people who require more medical care and other services, and the building of many new restaurants, hotels, and motels, with the accompanying need for maids, waitresses, cooks, kitchen workers, and other service personnel. Sixteen percent of all women workers were engaged in a service occupation (except private household) in April 1968 as compared with 13 percent in 1950 and 11 percent in 1940.

About 4.1 million women worked as operatives, and 4 million were professional and technical workers in April 1968. But the rate of growth in these two major occupation groups since 1940, and especially since 1950, differed greatly. The number of women professional workers more than doubled over the 18-year period, illustrating the rising demand for workers with higher educational achievement or specialized skills. On the other hand, the number of women operatives increased by only 28 percent. Thus this occupation declined in relative importance for women—from 19 percent of all women workers in 1950 to 15 percent in 1968.

The relative importance for women of several other major occupation groups has declined since 1940. Although the number of women employed as private household workers increased between 1950 and 1968 after dropping between 1940 and 1950, they represented only 7 percent of all women workers in 1968 as compared with 18 percent in 1940. The percentage of women employed as sales workers dropped to slightly below 7 percent in 1968, after having increased from 7 to 9 percent between 1940 and 1950. The

Table 40.—MAJOR OCCUPATION GROUPS OF EMPLOYED WOMEN, 1940, 1950, AND 1968[1]

(Women 14 years of age and over)

Major occupation group	Number (in thousands)			Percent distribution			As percent of total employed		
	1968	1950	1940	1968	1950	1940	1968	1950	1940
Total	27,896	17,156	11,920	100.0	100.0	100.0	36.6	29.3	25.9
Professional, technical workers	4,022	1,862	1,570	14.4	10.8	13.2	38.6	41.8	45.4
Managers, officials, proprietors (except farm)	1,203	941	450	4.3	5.5	3.8	15.7	14.8	11.7
Clerical workers	9,289	4,539	2,530	33.3	26.4	21.2	72.6	59.3	52.6
Sales workers	1,901	1,516	830	6.8	8.8	7.0	39.7	39.0	27.9
Craftsmen, foremen	311	181	110	1.1	1.1	.9	3.3	2.4	2.1
Operatives	4,130	3,215	2,190	14.8	18.7	18.4	29.9	26.9	25.7
Nonfarm laborers	123	68	100	.4	.4	.8	3.5	3.3	3.3
Private household workers	2,021	1,771	2,100	7.2	10.3	17.6	97.6	92.1	93.8
Service workers (except private household)	4,341	2,168	1,350	15.6	12.6	11.3	57.0	45.4	40.1
Farmers, farm managers	82	253	[2] 690	.3	1.5	[2] 5.8	4.1	5.5	[2] 8.0
Farm laborers, foremen	472	663		1.7	3.9		28.0	27.4	

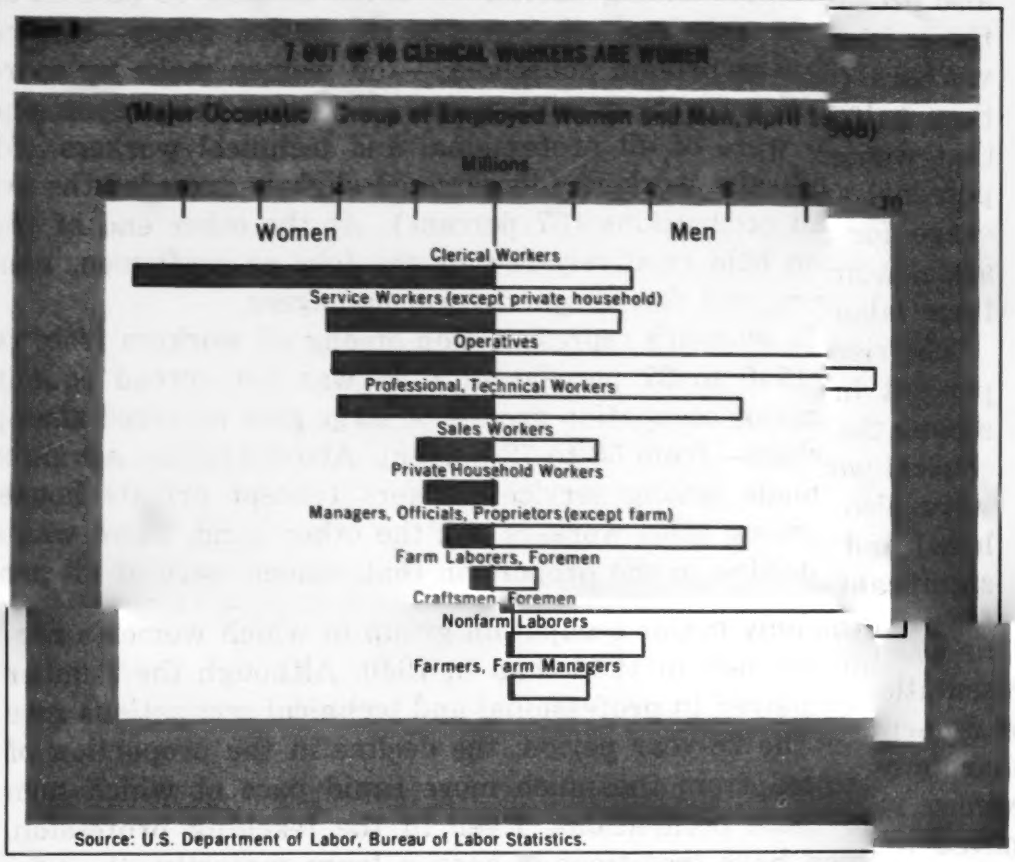
[1] Data are for April of each year.

[2] Not reported separately in 1940.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Employment and Earnings, May 1968 and May 1960, and Monthly Labor Review, August 1947; and U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census: Current Population Reports, P-57, No. 94.

number as well as the proportion of women employed in farming occupations decreased between 1940 and 1968.

Occupational differences between women and men.—The major occupation groups in which women 16 years of age and over are concentrated differ from those of men (chart N). In contrast to the predominance of clerical workers among women, 40 percent of all men employed in April 1968 were either craftsmen or operatives, with an almost equal number in each group. The next largest number of employed men were nonfarm managers, officials, or proprietors—almost 1 out of 7 men was in the managerial group as compared with 1 out of 25 women. Many more men than women were employed as nonfarm laborers and farm workers. On the other hand, almost twice as many women as men had jobs as service workers either inside or outside the home. A slightly larger proportion of women than men were sales workers, although the number of men sales workers exceeded that of women.



Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

42. Proportion of Workers Who Are Women

The diversity in the employment of men and women is also illustrated by the varying proportions women are of all workers in the different major occupation groups. As might be expected, women 14 years of age and over accounted for nearly all (98 percent) of the private household workers in 1968 (table 40). They also predominated among clerical workers—holding 73 percent of these jobs. In only one other major occupation group—service workers (except private household)—did women make up more than half (57 percent) of all workers. However, the proportions that women were of all professional and technical workers (39 percent) and sales workers (40 percent) slightly exceeded the average for all occupations (37 percent). At the other end of the scale, women held relatively few of the jobs as craftsmen, nonfarm laborers, and farmers and farm managers.

The rise in women's representation among all workers from 26 percent in 1940 to 37 percent in 1968 was not spread equally among the major occupation groups. A large gain occurred among clerical workers—from 53 to 73 percent. Above-average advances were also made among service workers (except private household) and among sales workers. On the other hand, there was a significant decline in the proportion that women were of all professional and technical workers—from 45 percent to 39 percent. This was the only major occupation group in which women's representation was less in 1968 than in 1940. Although the number of women employed in professional and technical occupations rose sharply over the 28-year period, the decline in the proportion of women resulted from the much more rapid pace at which men moved into these occupations. Even in the teaching profession, where women have traditionally been a large majority, the proportion of men has increased slightly in recent years. Moreover, many of the new professional positions that have opened up since 1940 have been in science and engineering—fields in which women constitute only a small minority.

Detailed Occupations of Women

The principal source of information on the detailed occupations of employed persons is the decennial census. Although data collected in the 1960 census can be supplemented for selected occupations or groups of occupations by more recent employment figures published monthly by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, or by recent estimates of employment in individual occupations, an overall consideration of all detailed occupations must be based on census figures.

In 1960, as in previous census years, women were concentrated in a relatively small number of occupations. Nearly one-fourth of all employed women 14 years of age and over were secretaries, sales women in retail trade, general private household workers, or teachers in elementary schools. In each of the top three of these occupations more than a million women were employed. About one-third of all working women were in seven occupations—the four listed previously and bookkeeper, waitress, and professional nurse. In fact, nearly two-thirds of the 21.2 million women employed in 1960 were in 36 individual occupations, each of which engaged 100,000 or more women (table 41). About two-fifths of these occupations were white collar, one-fourth were manual, and the remainder were service. The list included four professional occupations—teacher in elementary schools, teacher in secondary schools, professional nurse, and musician and music teacher.

The number of occupations in which 100,000 or more women were employed had increased since 1950, when there were only 29. The seven occupations added during the decade were babysitter, charwoman and cleaner, counter and fountain worker, file clerk, housekeeper and stewardess (except private household), musician and music teacher, and receptionist. Nearly all of these jobs were for clerical workers or for service workers (except private household)—the two major occupation groups in which the number of employed women had increased the most since 1950.

Another measure of the major occupations of women is an examination of those in which women are three-fourths or more of all workers. In more than half of the 36 occupations in which 100,000 or more women were employed in 1960, at least 3 out of 4 workers were women; in at least one-third, 9 out of 10 were women. Table 42 shows the detailed occupations in which 75 percent or more of all workers were women in 1960.

43. Women in Professional Occupations

There were 4 million women—1 out of 7 employed women—in professional and technical occupations in April 1968. About 2.2 million more women were engaged in professional or technical work in 1968 than in 1950, and almost 2.5 million more than in 1940. (The 1968 figures are for women 16 years of age and over, but since 14- and 15-year-olds in professional and technical work

Table 41.—Detailed Occupations in Which 100,000 or More Women Were Employed, 1960

(Women 14 years of age and over)

Occupation	Number	As percent of total employed
Secretaries	1,423,352	97
Sales women (retail trade)	1,397,364	54
Private household workers (n.e.c.)	1,162,683	96
Teachers (elementary school)	860,413	86
Bookkeepers	764,054	84
Waitresses	714,827	87
Nurses (professional)	567,884	98
Sewers and stitchers (mfg.)	534,258	94
Typists	496,735	95
Cashiers	367,954	78
Cooks (except private household)	361,772	64
Telephone operators	341,797	96
Babysitters	319,735	98
Attendants (hospitals and other institutions)	288,268	74
Laundry and drycleaning operatives	277,396	72
Assemblers	270,769	44
Operatives (apparel and accessories)	270,619	75
Hairdressers and cosmetologists	267,050	89
Packers and wrappers (n.e.c.)	262,935	60
Stenographers	258,554	96
Teachers (secondary school)	243,452	47
Office machine operators	227,849	74
Checkers, examiners, and inspectors (mfg.)	215,066	45
Practical nurses	197,115	96
Kitchen workers (n.e.c.) (except private household)	179,796	59
Chambermaids and maids (except private household)	162,433	98
Housekeepers (private household)	143,290	99
Operatives (electrical machinery, equipment, and supplies)	138,001	48
Receptionists	131,142	98
Charwomen and cleaners	122,728	68
Housekeepers and stewardesses (except private household)	117,693	81
Dressmakers and seamstresses (except factory)	115,252	97
Counter and fountain workers	112,547	71
File clerks	112,323	86
Musicians and music teachers	109,638	57
Operatives (yarn, thread, and fabric mills)	103,399	44

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census: "U.S. Census of Population: 1960. Detailed Characteristics, U.S. Summary, PC(1)—1D," 1963.

Table 42.—OCCUPATIONS IN WHICH WOMEN WERE THREE-FOURTHS OR MORE OF TOTAL EMPLOYED, 1960

Occupations with 100,000 or more women	Occupations with less than 100,000 women
WOMEN WERE 90 PERCENT OR MORE OF TOTAL EMPLOYED	
Housekeepers (private household)	Nurses (student)
Nurses (professional)	Laundresses (private household)
Receptionists	Attendants (physicians' and dentists' offices)
Babysitters	Dietitians and nutritionists
Chambermaids and maids (except private household)	Demonstrators
Secretaries	Milliners
Dressmakers and seamstresses (except factory)	
Private household workers (n.e.c.)	
Telephone operators	
Stenographers	
Practical nurses	
Typists	
Sewers and stitchers (mfg.)	
WOMEN WERE 80 TO 89 PERCENT OF TOTAL EMPLOYED	
Hairdressers and cosmetologists	Boarding and lodging house keepers
Waitresses	Librarians
Teachers (elementary school)	
File clerks	
Bookkeepers	
Housekeepers and stewardesses (except private household)	
WOMEN WERE 75 TO 79 PERCENT OF TOTAL EMPLOYED	
Cashiers	Spinners (textile)
Operatives (apparel and accessories)	Dancers and dancing teachers
	Attendants and assistants (library)
	Operatives (knitting mills)
	Midwives

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census: "U.S. Census of Population: 1960. Detailed Characteristics, U.S. Summary, PC(1)—1D." 1963.

numbered only 6,000 in April 1968, comparisons with census data for earlier years (based on 14 and over) are not affected.)

The sharp rise in the number of women professional workers, especially since 1950, may be attributed to a variety of social and economic developments. The tremendous need for better educated workers, as well as the sizable increase in the population, stimulated the expansion of educational systems and facilities. The continuing concern for the health of all, and especially of older people as the lifespan increases, resulted in enlarged medical facilities and expanded health programs. The growth of business and industrial firms and of government operations increased the need not only for accountants and personnel workers but also for mathematicians and other professional and technical workers in the field of data processing.

Teaching continues to be the most popular profession among women. The 1.7 million women noncollege teachers in April 1968 equaled 42 percent of all professional women (table 38). This number of women teachers (considerably above the 1.2 million recorded in the 1960 census and double the 839,000 reported in 1950) gives some indication of the rapid expansion of our educational systems. Seven out of 10 of the women teachers employed at the time of the 1960 census were in elementary education; 2 out of 10 taught in secondary schools.

The number of women teaching in junior high and high schools has not increased as rapidly as has the number of men. There has been a concerted and fairly successful effort to attract more men into these jobs. As a result, women were less than half of all secondary school teachers in 1960, after being in the majority in 1950.

There has also been a decline in the proportion of women among teachers at the college and university level. Only 22 percent of the faculty and other professional staff in institutions of higher education were women in 1964 (the most recent date for which comparable figures are available). This is a considerably smaller proportion than they were in 1940 (28 percent), 1930 (27 percent), or 1920 (26 percent), and only slightly above their proportion in 1910 (20 percent).

A special survey of public school teachers in 1965–66 disclosed that although men were in the majority in secondary schools, about 70 percent of all teachers were women.[1] Almost two-thirds of the women teachers were married, about one-tenth were widowed or divorced, and the rest were single. The median age of women teachers was 40 years. Women teachers, on the whole, were somewhat older and had less education than their male counterparts. About 10 percent of all women teachers, but only 2 percent of the men, had not earned a bachelor's degree. Furthermore, only 18 percent of the women teachers, compared with 35 percent of the men, had obtained a master's or other advanced degree. Half of all the teachers in the sample had taught less than 10 years.

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[1] National Education Association: "The American Public School Teacher, 1965–66." Research Report 1967–R 4. 1967.

Another large group of professional women are employed as medical and other health workers (the only other category of professional workers for whom employment figures are reported regularly by the Bureau of Labor Statistics). In April 1968 they numbered 1,006,000 and were one-fourth of all women professional workers. The largest single occupation in this group is that of professional nurse; almost 568,000 women were employed as professional nurses at the time of the 1960 decennial census, and estimates placed the figure at about 659,000 in 1968. Another important occupation in this group is medical or dental technician. More than 86,000 women worked as technicians in laboratories, hospitals, clinics, and physicians' or dentists' offices in 1960—twice as many as in 1950. Other women medical and health workers employed in 1960 were student nurses (56,540), dietitians and nutritionists (24,237), therapists (19,752), and physicians and surgeons (15,513). Since 1960 the number of women physicians has grown to about 20,000.

Although the number of women physicians has increased about 26 percent since 1960, women's representation among all physicians has remained unchanged during the period at about 7 percent. On the other hand, there have been slow but steady increases since 1955 in both the numbers and proportions of women enrolled in and graduating from U.S. medical schools. In 1967 women constituted 8.3 percent of students enrolled in U.S medical schools (as compared with 5.4 percent in 1955) and 7.5 percent of medical school graduates (as compared with 4.9 percent in 1955).

Women also hold a wide variety of professional jobs outside the teaching and health fields. Although women still represented only one-fifth of professional and technical workers in these fields in 1968, their share of such positions had increased slightly since 1960. In 1960 relatively large numbers of women were musicians and music teachers, accountants and auditors, social and welfare workers, librarians, and editors and reporters. The growing diversity of women's employment in professional positions is illustrated by the fact that in at least seven additional occupations the number of employed women doubled or more than doubled between 1950 and 1960: industrial engineer, mathematician, aeronautical engineer, personnel and labor relations worker, public relations worker and publicity writer, recreation and group worker, and sports instructor and official. Recent estimates indicate that the rapid expansion previously noted among women mathematicians and public relations workers has continued since 1960. On the other hand, the total number of women engineers and scientists did not rise significantly between 1950 and 1960; and women hold only a small proportion of the positions as engineers, technicians (other than medical and dental), and scientists, despite the numerous job openings created by the tremendous interest in research and development.

44. Women Managers, Officials, and Proprietors

About 1.2 million women were employed as managers, officials, and proprietors in April 1968. This group of women workers had almost tripled since 1940, with most of the increase occuring prior to 1950. However, this is a relatively small occupation group for women; they are still outnumbered by men about 6 to 1.

More than two-thirds of the women employed in this major occupation group in 1968 were salaried workers. (In contrast, at the time of the 1950 census only about half of the women managers and proprietors were salaried workers.) Many small individually owned enterprises have been replaced in recent years by supermarkets, large discount houses, and branch operations of large companies, thus limiting opportunities for the individual proprietor.

In 1968, as in 1960, about two-thirds of the self-employed women were proprietors in retail trade. The 1960 census shows that these women were operating mainly eating and drinking places, food and dairy product stores, and apparel and accessories stores. Another large group operated establishments offering personal services. Many of the salaried managers were likewise in retail trade and personal services in 1960; others worked as buyers and department heads in stores, officials in public administration, managers and superintendents in buildings, and postmasters. The employment of both women and men managers and proprietors has been expanding rapidly in the fields of banking and other finance, insurance and real estate, and business services.

45. Women in Clerical Occupations

Of the nearly 9.3 million women employed in April 1968 as clerical workers—the largest occupation group for women—3.3 million, or more than one-third, were stenographers, typists, or secretaries. (This was considerably above the number employed in these occupations at the time of the 1960 census (2.2 million) and the 1950 census (1.5 million).) The growth of business and industry, of all kinds of services, and of government operations has brought a rising demand for workers in these occupations to handle correspondence, interoffice communications, and other forms of paperwork. On the other hand, the number of women employed to handle communication other than by mail remained almost unchanged between 1950 and 1960. Thus there were about 342,000 women telephone operators at the time of both the 1950 and 1960 censuses, although the number almost doubled between 1940 and 1950. The installation of automatic dialing equipment permitted the telephone industry to expand its services without increasing the number of operators. Since 1960, the number of telephone operators has increased slightly as more businesses needed switchboard operators for private branch exchanges (PBX).

Another large group of women clerical workers are bookkeepers. The number of women bookkeepers increased by more than 200,000 between 1950 and 1960—to a total of 764,054. (Recent estimates indicate that this rate of growth has continued since 1960.) These additional bookkeepers were employed mainly in retail trade, professional and related services, and finance, insurance, and real estate. The rapid expansion of these industries also brought about increases in women's employment as cashiers, bank tellers, bill and account collectors, and insurance adjusters, examiners, and investigators. The rise in women's employment as bank tellers was particularly striking—more than a threefold increase between 1950 and 1960. (There has been a less rapid but substantial increase since 1960.) In fact, women's employment in this occupation increased more rapidly than did men's; and as a result, 7 out of 10 bank tellers in 1960 (and in 1967) were women compared with less than 5 out of 10 in 1950. Other clerical occupations in which women's employment doubled or more than doubled between 1950 and 1960 were library attendant and assistant, payroll and timekeeping clerk, receptionist, stock clerk and storekeeper, and ticket, station, and express agent.[9]

46. *Women in Service Occupations*

The second largest group of employed women (4.3 million) in April 1968 were service workers (except private household). More than 1 out of 3 of these were waitresses, cooks, and bartenders. (The 1.6 million women working in these occupations in 1968 exceeded the 1.1 million similarly employed at the time of the 1960 census and the 800,000 in 1950. About 2 out of 3 of the women in these occupations in 1960 were waitresses.) Many more workers have been needed to prepare and serve food in new and expanding restaurants and other eating and drinking places as personal incomes rise and as more women work outside the home. Most of these jobs have been filled by women, since employment is often part time or part year.

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[9] For further information on clerical occupations, see "Clerical Occupations for Women—Today and Tomorrow." Bull. 289. Women's Bureau, U.S. Department of Labor. 1964.

Many women are also employed as kitchen workers and counter and fountain workers in restaurants and eating and drinking places. In 1960 these women workers, added to waitresses, cooks, and bartenders, constituted about half of the 2.8 million women service workers.

Two other large groups of women service workers at the time of the 1960 census were in the health field—attendants in hospitals and other institutions (288,268) and practical nurses (197,115). The construction and expansion of hospitals, nursing homes, mental institutions, and other health facilities brought an increasing demand for workers in these occupations. Here again, most of the new openings have been filled by women. As a result, the number of attendants in hospitals and other institutions had more than doubled since 1950, and the number of women practical nurses increased by one-half. (Recent estimates indicate that employment of women as practical nurses has been increasing at about the same rate.)

Outside of occupations related to health and food, the largest group for women service workers is that of hairdresser and cosmetologist. It is estimated that more than 400,000 women were employed in this occupation in 1967—a substantial increase from the 1950 and 1960 figures of about 190,000 and 270,000, respectively. Other large groups of women were employed in 1960 in housekeeping services as chambermaids and maids or housekeepers and stewardesses, and in building and custodial services as charwomen and cleaners or janitors and sextons.

Occupations by Selected Characteristics

47. Occupations of Women by Marital Status

The occupations of women vary to some extent with their marital status. More women 16 years of age and over were employed in clerical work than in any other major occupation group in March 1967, whether they were single, married (husband present), or with other marital status (table 43). But the concentration of women in this occupation group differed according to their marital status. Thus a larger proportion of all single women (43 percent) than of either married women (32 percent) or women with other marital status (26 percent) were clerical workers. There are several reasons for the larger proportion of single women in clerical jobs. Many of these women are under 25 years of age and completed their education with high school. Thus they often hold low-paying entry jobs that require little training or experience. Moreover, many single girls prefer clerical work because it is usually full time the year round.

Table 43.—MAJOR OCCUPATION GROUPS OF EMPLOYED WOMEN, BY MARITAL STATUS, MARCH 1967

(Women 16 years of age and over)

Major occupation group	Total	Marital status: Single	Marital status: Married (husband present)	Marital status: Other[1]
Number	26,226,000	5,566,000	15,189,000	5,471,000
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Professional, technical workers	14.1	17.0	14.6	9.8
Managers, officials, proprietors (except farm)	4.2	1.9	4.7	5.3
Clerical workers	32.9	42.5	32.1	25.6
Sales workers	7.1	5.5	7.9	6.5
Operatives	15.7	9.2	17.6	16.8
Private household workers	7.0	9.4	4.3	12.1
Service workers (except private household)	15.9	12.6	15.2	21.2
Other[2]	3.1	1.9	3.6	2.7

[1] Widowed, divorced, or separated.

[2] Includes craftsmen, farm workers, and nonfarm laborers.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Special Labor Force Report No. 94.

Another large proportion of the single women (17 percent) were employed in March 1967 in professional and technical occupations. Unmarried women who recently have completed college or graduate work often qualify for these positions more easily than do older married women workers who lack continuity in job experience. However, more married women are beginning to qualify for and to obtain professional positions, especially in fields where shortages exist. In March 1967, 15 percent of all married women workers were in professional and technical occupations.

Two other major occupation groups—operatives and service workers (except private household)—each accounted for about one-sixth of all married women workers. Many operative occupations pay relatively well and at the same time require little or no previous work experience. Moreover, married women who prefer part-time work or work conveniently located near their homes often find such opportunities in service occupations.

Among women who were widowed, divorced, or with husband absent, the largest group after clerical workers were in service work outside the home (21 percent). Many of these were older women who did not have the skills and training required in other types of jobs or who, because of financial need, had to take whatever jobs were available. In addition, large groups of women with "other" marital status were operatives (17 percent) and private household workers (12 percent).

Just as married women (husband present) constituted well over one-half of all women workers in March 1967, they were also well over one-half of the workers in each of the major occupation groups, with the exception of private household workers (table 44). In this group they were a little over one-third of the total. Especially high proportions of married women workers were in three major occupation groups: operatives, sales workers, and managers, officials, and proprietors. Many married women prefer part-time employment and thus take sales jobs. Others work as salaried managers, especially in retail outlets, or as self-employed proprietors in their own or a family business.

Table 44.—MARITAL STATUS OF EMPLOYED WOMEN, BY MAJOR OCCUPATION GROUP, MARCH 1967

(Women 16 years of age and over)

Major occupation group	Number	Percent distribution by marital status			
		Total	Single	Married (husband present)	Other[1]
Total	26,226,000	100.0	21.2	57.9	20.9
Professional, technical workers	3,698,000	100.0	25.6	59.9	14.5
Managers, officials, proprietors (except farm)	1,101,000	100.0	9.5	64.3	26.1
Clerical workers	8,628,000	100.0	27.4	56.4	16.2
Sales workers	1,862,000	100.0	16.4	64.4	19.1
Operatives	4,117,000	100.0	12.5	65.1	22.4
Private household workers	1,836,000	100.0	28.5	35.5	36.0
Service workers (except private household)	4,170,000	100.0	16.8	55.4	27.8
Other[2]	813,000	100.0	13.2	68.3	18.5

[1] Widowed, divorced, or separated.

[2] Includes craftsmen, farm workers, and nonfarm laborers.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Special Labor Force Report No. 94.

48. Occupations of Nonwhite Women[3]

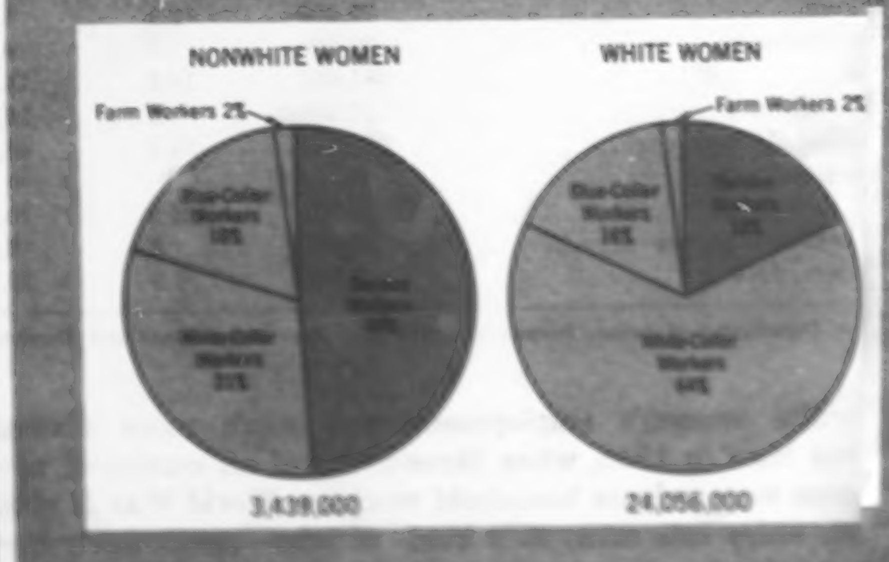
Of the 28.7 million women in the civilian labor force in April 1968, 3.7 million were nonwhite. They represented 49 percent of all nonwhite women 16 years of age or over in the population. About 1 out of 14 nonwhite women in the labor force was unemployed, as compared with 1 out of 25 white women. Nonwhite women were somewhat more likely than white women to work at part-time or part-year jobs.

These characteristics of nonwhite women workers are interrelated with the types of jobs they hold. Whereas more than 3 out of 5 white women workers were engaged in white-collar work in April 1968, almost half of the nonwhite women were in service work where intermittent or part-time work is common (chart O). On the other hand, approximately the same proportions of both white and nonwhite women were employed in blue-collar work or farm work in April 1968.

Chart O

A LARGER PROPORTION OF NONWHITE THAN WHITE WOMEN ARE IN SERVICE WOR

(Employed Women, by Color and Type of Work, April 1968)



Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

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[3] For further information on the occupations of nonwhite women workers see "Negro Women in the Population and in the Labor Force." Women's Bureau, Wage and Labor Standards Administration, U.S. Department of Labor. 1967.

Since nonwhite women constituted only about 1 out of 8 women workers in April 1968, they were a small proportion of all employed women in most major occupation groups. However, almost half of the private household workers and about 1 out of 5 service workers (except private household) were nonwhite.

Nonwhite women are concentrated in certain major occupation groups as they are in certain types of work. Thus about one-fourth of all employed nonwhite women were private household workers in April 1968 (table 45). Approximately another one-fourth were service workers outside the home. The third largest occupation group for employed nonwhite women was clerical workers (17 percent), followed by operatives (also 17 percent).

Table 45.—MAJOR OCCUPATION GROUPS OF EMPLOYED NONWHITE WOMEN, APRIL 1968

(Women 16 years of age and over)

Major occupation group	Number	Percent distribution	As percent of total employed women
Total	3,439,000	100.0	12.5
Professional, technical workers	351,000	10.2	8.7
Managers, officials, proprietors (except farm)	52,000	1.5	4.3
Clerical workers	598,000	17.4	6.4
Sales workers	72,000	2.1	3.8
Craftsmen, foremen	28,000	.8	9.0
Operatives	581,000	16.9	14.0
Nonfarm laborers	17,000	.5	14.7
Private household workers	839,000	24.4	48.6
Service workers (except private household)	832,000	24.2	19.3
Farmers, farm managers	7,000	.2	8.5
Farm laborers, foremen	65,000	1.9	14.2

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Employment and Earnings, May 1968.

But nonwhite women's employment was much more diversified in 1968 than in 1940, when three-fifths of all employed nonwhite women were private household workers. World War II stimulated their entry into many new kinds of jobs—particularly clerical, sales, professional, and service outside the home. This diversification has proceeded at a more rapid rate in the last 5 years. As a result, about 20 percent of all employed nonwhite women were in clerical or sales work in 1968 compared with 12 percent in 1963, 6 percent in 1950, and 2 percent in 1940. Similarly, 10 percent of employed nonwhite women were in professional and technical occupations in 1968 compared with 7 percent in 1963, 6 percent in 1950, and 4 percent in 1940.[4]

49. Occupations of Young Women

There were 2.3 million girls 16 to 19 years of age employed in April 1968 (table 46). More than 2 out of 5 (42 percent) of these young workers were in the clerical field. The next largest group were service workers outside the home (21 percent) and private household workers (13 percent). In only two other major occupation groups—sales workers and operatives—were there a considerable number in this age group.

Table 46.—Major Occupation Groups of Employed Girls 16 to 19 Years of Age, April 1968

Major occupation group	Number	Percent distribution	As percent of total employed women
Total	2,280,000	100.0	8.3
Professional, technical workers	70,000	3.1	1.7
Managers, officials, proprietors (except farm)	4,000	.2	.3
Clerical workers	953,000	41.8	10.3
Sales workers	230,000	10.1	12.2
Craftsmen, foremen	10,000	.4	3.2
Operatives	203,000	8.9	4.9
Nonfarm laborers	12,000	.5	10.3
Private household workers	287,000	12.6	16.6
Service workers (except private household)	472,000	20.7	11.0
Farmers, farm managers	-------	----	----
Farm laborers, foremen	39,000	1.7	8.5

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Employment and Earnings, May 1968.

Another measure of the types of jobs held by teenage girls is their representation among all employed women in the various major occupation groups. Thus, although girls 16 to 19 years of age accounted for only 8 percent of all employed women in April 1968, they were 17 percent of private household workers, 12 percent of sales workers, and 11 percent of service workers outside the home. On the other hand, they were only a very small proportion of managers and of professional and technical workers.

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[4] Data for 1940 and 1950 (from the decennial censuses) and for 1963 are for persons 14 years of age and over, while 1968 figures are for persons 16 years of age and over and are not strictly comparable.

50. Occupations of Mature Women

There were about 10.8 million women 45 years of age and over at work in April 1968 (table 47). Of these, about 2.8 million, or 26 percent, were in clerical occupations. These occupations are not as popular for mature women as they are for all women workers generally. The next two largest occupation groups for mature women in April 1968 were service workers employed outside the home (16 percent) and operatives (15 percent). An additional 14 percent were in professional and technical occupations. In this occupation group, mature women held proportionately about as many positions as did women of all ages—a clear indication of the rising demand for workers with higher educational achievement irrespective of their age. Sizable numbers of mature women were also employed as private household workers, sales workers, and nonfarm managers, officials, and proprietors.

Table 47.—MAJOR OCCUPATION GROUPS OF EMPLOYED WOMEN 45 YEARS OF AGE AND OVER, APRIL 1968

Major occupation group	Number	Percent distribution	As percent of total employed women
Total	10,778,000	100.0	9.2
Professional, technical workers	1,503,000	13.9	7.4
Managers, officials, proprietors (except farm)	719,000	6.7	9.8
Clerical workers	2,835,000	26.3	0.6
Sales workers	909,000	8.4	8.3
Craftsmen, foremen	133,000	1.2	2.8
Operatives	1,644,000	15.3	9.9
Nonfarm laborers	42,000	.4	6.2
Private household workers	929,000	8.6	3.8
Service workers (except private household)	1,773,000	16.5	1.2
Farmers, farm managers	66,000	.6	0.5
Farm laborers, foremen	228,000	2.1	9.9

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Additional information on the types of jobs held by mature women may be obtained by comparing the number of women 45 years of age and over with the total number of employed women in each major occupation group. Thus, although mature women constituted only 39 percent of all employed women in April 1968, they were 80 percent of the extremely small group of women employed as farmers and farm managers. Mature women were 60 percent of all women employed as nonfarm managers, officials, and proprietors, and nearly half of the sales workers and of the small number of women employed as farm laborers and foremen. On the other hand, the representation of mature women was lowest among clerical workers (31 percent).

Industry Groups of Women

51. Distribution of Women by Industry

About 98 percent of all employed women 14 years of age and over were working in nonagricultural industries in 1967, and about three-fifths of these were engaged in the distribution of goods and services (table 48). Among the 11.2 million women providing services, 6.8 million were employed in professional and related services, such as schools, hospitals, other medical and health facilities, and welfare or religious agencies. About 3.7 million women provided personal services either in private households or in establishments such as hotels, laundries or drycleaners, and beauty shops. The remainder, about three-quarters of a million women, were engaged in business and repair services or recreation and entertainment services. Of the women engaged in the distribution of goods, 4.9 million were employed in retail trade and more than half a million were in wholesale trade.

Another 5.4 million, or 20 percent of all employed women, were employed in manufacturing industries. In only two other industries—finance, insurance, and real estate and public administration—were as many as 1 million women employed.

Changes in women's employment by industry.—Proportionately more women were employed in 1967 than in 1940 in construction; transportation, communication, and other public utilities; wholesale trade; retail trade; finance, insurance, and real estate; and public administration as these industries expanded with the growing economy. On the other hand, smaller proportions of all employed women were in agriculture, manufacturing, and service industries. The proportion of all employed women in manufacturing declined from 1950 to 1967, after a slight increase in the preceding decade. Within the services industry group, the proportion of women employed in professional and related services rose significantly—from 17 to 26 percent—in the period 1940 to 1967, while the percentage in personal services dropped even more sharply—from 26 to 14 percent.

Women as a percent of all workers.—Only in the services in-

Table 48.—MAJOR INDUSTRY GROUPS OF EMPLOYED WOMEN, 1940, 1950, AND 1967

(Women 14 years of age and over)

Major industry group	Number (in thousands)			Percent distribution			As percent of total employed		
	1967	1950	1940	1967	1950	1940	1967	1950	1940
Total	26,620	16,674	11,920	100.0	100.0	100.0	36.2	29.0	25.9
Agriculture, forestry, fisheries	489	692	533	1.8	4.2	4.5	13.5	10.2	6.2
Mining	37	15	12	.1	.1	.1	6.7	1.8	1.3
Construction	228	68	37	.9	.4	.3	5.4	2.2	1.8
Manufacturing	5,432	3,765	2,540	20.4	22.6	21.3	26.6	25.4	23.2
Transportation, communication, other public utilities	923	663	377	3.5	4.0	3.2	19.6	14.9	11.8
Wholesale trade	539	452	199	2.0	2.7	1.7	21.4	19.3	16.0
Retail trade	4,878	3,403	2,021	18.3	20.4	17.0	43.0	36.2	30.7
Finance, insurance, real estate	1,642	856	497	6.2	5.1	4.2	47.9	42.7	32.5
Services	11,223	6,019	5,334	42.2	36.1	44.7	60.2	55.2	58.6
Business and repair	560	159	84	2.1	1.0	.7	26.6	13.4	9.5
Personal	3,650	3,000	3,145	13.7	18.0	26.4	75.5	70.7	73.2
Entertainment, recreation	185	125	87	.7	.7	.7	29.7	24.4	21.3
Professional and related	6,828	2,735	2,018	25.6	16.4	16.9	61.6	55.2	57.4
Public administration	1,229	743	371	4.6	4.5	3.1	30.2	25.4	20.5

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census: Current Population Reports, P-60, Nos. 7 and 53.

dustry group were women more than half (60 percent) of all workers in 1967. Within this industry group women held 62 percent of all jobs in professional and related services and 75 percent in personal services but only 30 percent in entertainment and recreation services and 27 percent in business and repair services. Women were also well represented among all workers both in retail trade and in finance, insurance, and real estate. In fact, in these two industry groups the proportion of all workers who were women rose sharply between 1940 and 1967—from 31 to 43 percent in retail trade and from 33 to 48 percent in finance, insurance, and real estate.

52. *Women as Nonfarm Workers*

Women's employment in detailed nonagricultural industries is tabulated quarterly by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. The figures for women on payrolls of manufacturing industries have been issued since October 1940 (with a few breaks in continuity). Those for women on payrolls of nonmanufacturing industries date only from 1964, except for selected industries for which data have been available since 1960. A recent expansion in data collection makes available estimates of women employees for 386 industries, with totals for all eight major industry divisions. The major industry divisions include two (government and contract construction) for which data prior to 1964 are not available and two (services and transportation, communication, and other public utilities) for which only selected data were previously available. Because these figures are based on payroll data, they differ somewhat from the Bureau of the Census figures as shown in table 48.[8]

In April 1968 the estimated total number of women on the payrolls of nonagricultural industries was 24.3 million, an increase of 25 percent over the April 1964 figure (table 49). More than 5 million women were employed in each of four major industry divisions: services (5.5 million), wholesale and retail trade (5.4 million), manufacturing (5.4 million), and government (5.3 million). Large numbers of women were also employed in finance, insurance, and real estate (1.7 million) and in transportation, communication, and other public utilities (850,000).

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[8] The two surveys cover different time periods; the Bureau of the Census survey includes the self-employed, private household workers, and unpaid family workers; and the Bureau of Labor Statistics figures may include some duplication in the case of persons employed by more than one firm.

Table 49.—WOMEN IN NONAGRICULTURAL INDUSTRIES, 1964 AND 1968[1]

Industry	Number		As percent of total employed		Percent increase 1964–68
	1968	1964	1968	1964	
Total	24,305,000	19,402,000	36.0	33.8	25.3
Service and miscellaneous	5,527,000	4,395,000	53.1	51.0	25.8
Wholesale and retail trade	5,395,000	4,461,000	38.8	37.5	20.9
Manufacturing	5,356,000	4,431,000	27.5	26.0	20.9
Government	5,311,000	3,761,000	43.5	39.2	41.2
Federal	708,000	532,000	26.1	22.7	33.1
State	1,004,000	713,000	41.0	38.5	40.7
Local	3,599,000	2,516,000	51.0	46.5	43.1
Finance, insurance, real estate	1,676,000	1,459,000	50.6	49.7	14.9
Transportation, communication, other public utilities	853,000	714,000	19.9	18.3	19.5
Contract construction	152,000	147,000	4.8	5.1	3.4
Mining	35,000	34,000	5.6	5.4	2.9

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[1] Data are for April of each year.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Employment and Earnings, July and August 1968, and "Employment and Earnings Statistics for the United States, 1909–67." Bull. 1312–5. October 1967.

Women on government payrolls included 3.6 million in local government, of whom 3 out of 4 were in education. Of the 1 million women employed by State governments, 2 out of 5 were in education. Comparatively few women were employed in contract construction, the other industry not previously reported. A majority of these women were employed by special trade contractors in such fields as electrical work and plumbing, heating, and air conditioning.

The most rapid expansion in women's employment since April 1964 has occurred in local and State government (43 and 41 percent, respectively). Large increases have also taken place in the number of women employed in Federal Government (33 percent) and in services (26 percent). Women now constitute more than half of all employees in services, local government, and finance, insurance, and real estate. On the other hand, only 1 out of 20 employees in construction is a woman.

Factory workers.—The 5.4 million women working in manufacturing industries in April 1968 constituted about one-fifth of all employed women and more than one-fourth of all manufacturing employees (table 50). Some of these women worked in factory offices; others were production workers. The relative importance of these two groups varies considerably from industry to industry. In many of the heavy manufacturing industries, less than half of the women employees had production jobs in 1960. In other lighter manufacturing industries, such as apparel and some textile mills, as many as four-fifths of the women were production workers.

Manufacturing industries are divided into those producing durable goods and those producing nondurable goods. Women are more likely to be employed in nondurable goods than in durable goods. Thus 57 percent of all women in manufacturing in April 1968 were employed in plants producing "soft" goods. Nevertheless, this concentration was not as great as it had been in 1950 (67 percent) or in 1960 (61 percent).

Of the women working in industries in the nondurable division, more than one-third were in apparel and related products. Two other large employers of women were textile mill products and food and kindred products. The overall number of women employed in the manufacture of nondurable goods increased 16 percent from 1960 to 1968, but the number of women workers increased by less than 10 percent in textile mill products, leather and leather products, and food and kindred products and actually decreased in tobacco manufactures and petroleum refining and re-

Table 50.—WOMEN IN MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES, 1960 AND 1968[1]

Industry	Number in 1968	Percent distribution		As percent of total employed		Percent increase 1960–68
		1968	1960	1968	1960	
Total	5,356,000	100.0	100.0	27.5	25.7	23.5
NONDURABLE GOODS						
Subtotal	3,074,000	57.4	61.1	38.4	36.6	16.0
Apparel and related products	1,123,100	21.0	22.1	80.1	78.6	17.0
Textile mill products	441,100	8.2	9.4	45.2	43.4	8.5
Food and kindred products	415,800	7.8	9.1	25.8	23.1	5.1
Printing, publishing, allied industries	327,000	6.1	5.9	30.9	28.0	28.8
Chemicals, allied products	204,300	3.8	3.5	20.0	18.2	34.1
Leather, leather products	197,800	3.7	4.3	56.0	51.8	6.9
Rubber, miscellaneous plastic products	170,100	3.2	2.5	31.1	28.3	58.4
Paper, allied products	147,200	2.7	3.0	21.4	21.7	13.2
Tobacco manufactures	30,900	.6	1.0	43.1	50.1	[2] 26.3
Petroleum refining and related products	16,500	.3	.4	9.0	8.2	[2] 5.2
DURABLE GOODS						
Subtotal	2,282,000	42.6	38.9	19.8	17.6	35.3
Electrical equipment, supplies	756,700	14.1	12.2	39.0	36.3	42.5
Machinery (except electrical)	284,500	5.3	4.6	14.5	13.1	42.9
Fabricated metal products	241,700	4.5	4.4	17.7	16.6	27.6
Transportation equipment	221,900	4.1	4.1	10.9	11.0	25.9
Instruments, related products	157,800	2.9	2.8	35.4	33.5	31.8
Furniture, fixtures	103,800	1.9	1.5	22.4	17.1	56.6
Stone, clay, glass products	101,200	1.9	2.1	15.9	15.3	9.4
Primary metal industries	87,800	1.6	1.8	6.6	5.9	15.4
Ordnance, accessories	86,400	1.6	.9	25.7	19.0	111.2
Lumber, wood products (except furniture)	57,700	1.1	1.0	9.8	7.0	32.3
Miscellaneous manufacturing industries	182,600	3.4	3.5	43.5	39.4	19.9

[1] Data are for April of each year.

[2] A decrease instead of an increase.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Employment and Earnings, July and August 1968, and "Employment and Earnings Statistics for the United States, 1909–67." Bull. 1312–5. October 1967.

lated industries. Since 1960 the automation of plant processes begun in the 1950's has continued in most of these industries, resulting in a fairly stable or a dwindling demand for production workers despite increases in production.

Women's employment in plants producing durable goods increased 35 percent from 1960 to 1968. One-third of all women employed in durable goods manufacturing in April 1968 were in the electrical equipment and supplies industry. This includes firms manufacturing radio and television sets, telephones, electric lamps, electric measuring instruments, and household appliances.

Women constituted almost two-fifths of all workers in nondurable goods industries but only about one-fifth of the workers in durable goods industries. The highest representations of women in the nondurable goods group were in apparel and related products (80 percent) and leather and leather products (56 percent). In the durable goods group the two industries having the highest proportions of women workers were electrical equipment and supplies (39 percent) and instruments and related products (35 percent).

Nonmanufacturing workers.—The 70 nonmanufacturing industries for which payroll data have been available since 1960 include all divisions in retail trade, wholesale trade, and finance, insurance, and real estate. Of the 4.6 million women employed in retail trade in April 1968, 1.4 million were working in general merchandise stores and almost 1.3 million in eating and drinking places (table 51). Only 799,000 women were in wholesale trade. An additional 1.7 million women were employed in finance, insurance, and real estate, mainly in banks and in certain insurance companies.

Growth in women's employment since 1960 has amounted to 26 percent both in retail trade and in finance, insurance, and real estate. Particularly noteworthy were the increases in women's employment in eating and drinking places (42 percent) and in banking (38 percent). A striking 77 percent increase occurred in the security dealers and exchanges industry, but the total number of women employed was still relatively small.

Among service industries, large numbers of women were employed in April 1968 in hospitals (1,326,500), in educational services (508,200), and in laundries and cleaning and dyeing plants (361,300). A few service industries not surveyed in 1960 also had large concentrations of women employees in 1968. These include medical and health services other than hospitals (757,000) and miscellaneous business services other than credit and advertising (358,200).

Women's employment in hospitals increased by 60 percent from 1960 to 1968 and in college and university educational services by two-thirds, but in laundries and cleaning and dyeing plants it rose only slightly.

Table 51.—WOMEN IN SELECTED NONMANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES, 1960 AND 1968[1]

Industry	Number in 1968	As percent of total employed		Percent increase 1960–68
		1968	1960	
Retail trade	4,596,000	44.6	43.3	26.2
General merchandise stores	1,401,900	69.0	72.3	24.8
Eating, drinking places	1,266,500	55.9	54.4	42.0
Food stores	557,500	34.2	33.2	24.0
Apparel, accessories	464,500	65.3	65.0	5.1
Furniture, fixtures	127,500	29.5	28.8	10.5
Other retail stores	778,300	24.0	22.2	25.5
Finance, insurance, real estate	1,676,000	50.6	50.2	26.2
Banking	555,700	62.2	61.0	37.5
Insurance carriers	483,500	49.9	50.0	17.1
Real estate	204,000	34.6	36.5	8.1
Credit agencies (except banks)	188,700	54.5	54.4	34.3
Insurance agents, brokers, services	144,400	57.0	57.2	30.0
Security dealers, exchanges	61,100	34.1	30.5	77.1
Other finance, insurance, real estate	38,500	49.6	46.5	7.2
Wholesale trade	799,000	22.2	22.5	19.6
Mining	35,000	5.6	5.0	[2] 2.8
Services (miscellaneous):				
Hospitals	1,326,500	81.3	81.0	60.1
Laundries, cleaning and dyeing plants	361,300	66.1	65.2	5.6
Hotels, tourist courts, motels	311,900	49.5	49.7	31.8
Educational services	508,200	47.0	43.8	52.3
Colleges, universities	259,300	40.5	35.2	66.6
Elementary, secondary schools	210,200	58.6	61.2	29.5
Educational services (n.e.c.)	38,700	46.8	29.0	144.9
Legal services	127,500	63.9	67.8	31.3
Motion pictures	67,400	34.3	35.4	1.2
Credit reporting, collection	51,600	72.1	71.6	36.1
Advertising	49,200	42.4	33.6	33.7
Engineering, architectural services	40,700	14.3	14.3	50.7
Transportation, communication, other public utilities:				
Communication	490,800	49.9	51.4	14.0
Electric, gas, sanitary services	98,100	15.1	15.2	5.5
Trucking, warehousing	89,700	8.7	8.6	23.0
Transportation by air	80,700	24.7	21.9	93.5

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[1] Data are for April of each year.

[2] A decrease instead of an increase.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Employment and Earnings, July and August 1968, and "Employment and Earnings Statistics for the United States, 1909–67." Bull. 1312–5. October 1967.

The communication industry was the only one in the transportation and public utilities group that had more than 100,000 women workers. In April 1968, 490,800 women were working in this industry—an increase of 14 percent over the number employed in 1960. The great majority of these women were telephone workers.

Women generally constitute a higher proportion of all employees in nonmanufacturing than in manufacturing industries. In April 1968 women held 81 percent of the jobs in hospitals, 72 percent in credit reporting and collection agencies, 69 percent in general merchandise stores, 66 percent in laundries and cleaning and dyeing plants, and 65 percent in apparel and accessories stores. On the other hand, women were only a small proportion of all workers in mining (6 percent) and in trucking and warehousing (9 percent).

53. *Women on Farms*

About 3.8 million women—only 5 percent of the women 14 years of age and over in the United States—were estimated to be living on farms in the year centered on April 1967 (table 52). This was 1.3 million less than in April 1960 (monthly figure), the earliest date for which a comparable figure is available.

The number of farm women in the labor force, however, has decreased only slightly since 1960, as a larger proportion of all farm women were employed or seeking work in 1967 than in 1960 —36 percent compared with 30 percent. On the other hand, the labor force participation rate of men living on farms declined from 85 percent in 1960 to 81 percent in 1967.

About 38 percent of the 1.3 million employed women residing on farms in 1967 were working in agriculture; a majority of these were unpaid family workers. Another 245,000 women who were employed in agriculture in 1967 were not farm residents. There is an increasing tendency for agricultural workers to live away from the farm and to commute to work. In fact, nonfarm residents constituted 33 percent of the women employed in agriculture in 1967 compared with 22 percent in April 1960.

More recent figures show there were 628,000 women 14 years of age and over working in agriculture in April 1968.[6] Of these, 82,000 were farmers and farm managers and 472,000 were farm laborers and foremen. The remainder were performing a variety of clerical, sales, or service operations for agricultural firms. One

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[6] U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Employment and Earnings, May 1968.

Table 52.—EMPLOYMENT STATUS OF WOMEN LIVING ON FARMS, 1960 AND 1967[1]

(Women 14 years of age and over)

Employment status	Number		Percent distribution	
	1967	1960	1967	1960
Total	3,798,000	5,076,000	100.0	100.0
In labor force	1,384,000	1,523,000	36.4	30.0
Employed	1,336,000	1,449,000	35.2	28.5
Agriculture	503,000	637,000	13.2	12.5
Nonagriculture	833,000	812,000	21.9	16.0
Unemployed	48,000	74,000	1.3	1.5
Not in labor force	2,414,000	3,553,000	63.6	70.0

[1] Data are for April 1960 and April-centered annual averages in 1967.

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census: Current Population Reports, P–27, No. 39.

distinguishing characteristic of these agricultural workers was that they tended to be older than workers in nonagricultural industries. More than half of the women employed in farm work in April 1968 were 45 years of age or over, and 6 percent were 65 years of age or over.

The April figures are fairly low for agricultural employment, as the peak months of farm activity are June and July. During 1968 women's agricultural employment reached a maximum of 999,000 in June.[7] Fluctuations in farm employment are much greater than in nonagricultural employment and are one of the primary reasons for the seasonal pattern of the labor force as a whole.

Women in Public Administration

54. *Women in Federal Civilian Service*

Legislative branch.—In the legislative branch of the Federal Government, one woman was in the Senate and 10 women were in the House of Representatives in the 91st Congress.

Judicial branch.—Women occupied the following Federal judgeships by Presidential appointment as of early 1969: district courts, five; Court of Customs, one; Tax Court, two. In addition, three women were serving in District of Columbia courts by Presidential appointment.

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[7] Ibid. July 1968.

Executive branch, general.[8]—The highest ranking women in the executive branch of the Federal service, including the Foreign Service, in mid-1969 were in the following positions: Assistant Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare for Community and Field Services; Administrator, Bureau of Security and Consular Affairs, Department of State; Special Assistant to the President for Consumer Affairs; Ambassador to Norway; Ambassador to Nepal; Ambassador to Barbados; Chairman, Interstate Commerce Commission; Delegate to United Nations Human Rights Commission; Delegate to United Nations Social Commission of the Economic and Social Council; Administrator, Social and Rehabilitation Service, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare; Commissioner, Federal Trade Commission; Commissioner, Tariff Commission; Commissioner, Equal Employment Opportunity Commission; Member, Indian Claims Commission; Assistant Administrator for Personnel, Veterans Administration; Associate Director for Policy and Research, United States Information Agency; Member, Executive Committee, United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization; Deputy Assistant Secretary of State for Public Affairs; Deputy Assistant Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare for Population and Family Planning; Deputy Director, Office of Civil Defense, Department of the Army; Director of the Mint, Department of the Treasury; Director, Office of Territories, Department of the Interior; Director, Women's Bureau, Wage and Labor Standards Administration, Department of Labor; Assistant Commissioner, Office of Research and Statistics, Social Security Administration, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare; Assistant Commissioner of Education, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare; Assistant Commissioner for Educational Statistics, Office of Education, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.

In June 1967 an estimated 849,000 women were working for the Federal Government (table 53). This number was considerably above the 173,000 employed in 1939 but short of the World War II peak of 1,111,000.

Of the 659,403 women who were employed full time in October 1967 in white-collar positions, more than 7 out of 10 were GS 5 or the equivalent or less.[9] The majority were employed as clerks, typists, secretaries, or stenographers. Only 2 percent of all women were in grades GS 12 and above as compared with 21 percent of men.

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[8] See section 121 for discussion of policy on women in the Federal civil service.

[9] U.S. Civil Service Commission, Bureau of Management Services: "Study of Employment of Women in the Federal Government, 1967." June 1968.

Table 53.—WOMEN IN THE FEDERAL CIVILIAN SERVICE, SELECTED YEARS, 1923–67 [1]

Year	Number [2]	As percent of total employees
1967	849,421	30
1964	601,358	25
1961	560,593	25
1958	533,001	24
1956	533,318	24
1954	521,945	24
1952 (Korean conflict)	601,215	25
1950	410,327	23
1947 (return of war veterans)	444,194	24
1944 (World War II peak)	1,110,545	37
1939	172,733	19
1923	81,486	16

[1] Data are for June of each year except 1944 (July) and 1956, 1958, 1961, and 1964 (December).

[2] Refers to civilian employees in continental United States except for 1967 when refers to all U.S. citizen civilian employees.

Source: U.S. Civil Service Commission.

There were 164 women in grades GS 16 through 18 or equivalent in full-time positions. The State Department (including AID and Peace Corps) had 49 women in these grades; Health, Education, and Welfare, 47; Veterans Administration, 9; Labor, 8; and the U.S. Information Agency, 6. A number of agencies had no women in these grades.

Increasing numbers of young women are taking the Federal Service Entrance Examination and being appointed to professional positions at the entrance level. The percentage of women appointed to such positions nearly doubled between 1963 and 1967—rising from 18 to 35 percent. The actual number of women appointed, however, nearly tripled during this period. In addition, women accounted for 29 percent of those selected as management interns in 1967, as compared with only 14 percent in 1965.

Executive branch, Foreign Service.—In the international field women have held positions of high rank. As far back as 1964 the United States has been represented on the Trusteeship Council by a woman holding the rank of ambassador. Women have represented the United States regularly as alternate delegates to the U.N. General Assembly, and have served on delegations to the UNESCO General Conference, UNICEF, the Organization of American States, and other bodies. (In 1968 a U.S. delegate was the first woman elected to the Executive Board of UNESCO.) In

1969 women served as representatives of the United States on the Social Commission, the Status of Women Commission, and the Human Rights Commission, and women served in various capacities in the U.S. Permanent Mission to the United Nations. The United States is a member of the Inter-American Commission of Women, and a woman has represented the United States in the Inter-American Children's Institute. In addition, U.S. delegations to international conferences usually include women among their advisers and in other technical capacities.

A total of 3,061 women were in the Foreign Service of the United States in 1968 (table 54). They equaled 28 percent of all Foreign Service employees. The Ambassadors to Denmark, Norway, and Nepal were the only women among 103 chiefs of mission. Other Foreign Service officers included 355 women, less than one-tenth of the total. Most of the women in this group were consular officers and political officers in embassies and legations.

About half of the staff positions in the Foreign Service were held by women. They were employed in a variety of specialized occupations, including clerk, stenographer, typist, and secretary, as well as assistant attaché, liaison officer, fiscal officer, consular attaché, administrative assistant, librarian, and political and research analyst.

Table 54.—FOREIGN SERVICE PERSONNEL, BY SEX AND RANK, MARCH 1968

Rank	Total	Women		Men	
		Number	Percent distribution	Number	Percent distribution
Total	10,769	3,061	100.0	7,708	100.0
Foreign Service Officers: [1]					
Chief of Mission	103	3	.1	100	1.3
Career Ambassador, Career Minister, and Class 1	416	5	.2	411	5.3
Class 2 and 3	1,674	79	2.6	1,595	20.7
Class 4 and 5	1,721	156	5.1	1,565	20.3
Class 6 to 8	1,204	115	3.8	1,089	14.1
Foreign Service Staff:					
Class 1 and 2	400	48	1.6	352	4.6
Class 3 to 5	1,361	553	18.1	808	10.5
Class 6 to 8	3,156	1,544	50.4	1,612	20.9
Class 9 and 10	722	558	18.2	164	2.1
Consular agent	11	----	----	11	.1
Unclassified	1	----	----	1	(2)

[1] Includes 1,615 Foreign Service Reserve Officers (162 women).

[2] Less than 0.05 percent.

Source: U.S. Department of State: Summary of Employment, March 31, 1968.

A study by the President's Commission on the Status of Women showed less discrepancy in promotion rates of men and women in the Foreign Service than in the civil service generally.[10] The turnover among women Foreign Service officers is quite high because of the difficulty of combining marriage and a career that requires frequent changes in assignments.

55. *Women in the Armed Services*

Women in the armed services of the United States, who are an integral part of our Armed Forces, have been given permanent status by act of Congress and serve on active duty as commissioned officers and in enlisted grades. They are on an interchangeable (noncombatant) basis with their male counterparts and provide a well-trained nucleus that could be expanded rapidly in the event of mobilization. While on active duty, both officers and enlisted women receive medical and dental care, annual vacations, educational and training opportunities, and social security protection.

Women officers serve in the grades of second lieutenant to colonel in the Army, Marine Corps, and Air Force, and from ensign to captain in the Navy. However, effective November 8, 1967, Public Law 90–130 amended previous laws and removed certain restrictions on the promotional opportunities and career tenure of women officers serving on active duty in the Armed Forces.

Programs for women in the armed services are divided into two broad categories—medical and line. Requirements for medical personnel are based on professional needs.

At the end of November 1967 there were 35,598 women on active duty in the armed services (table 55). They included 2,516 officers and 23,667 enlisted personnel serving in the "line" components and 9,415 officers serving in the medical professions.

Women's peak participation in the Armed Forces was reached in May 1945, when a total of 266,184 women were in the four military services. Of these, 183,484 were enlisted women, 67,507 were nurses and other medical personnel, and 15,193 were nonmedical officers. In addition, there were about 10,000 enlisted women and 1,000 women officers in the Coast Guard Women's Reserve (SPARS). In peacetime SPARS are under the Transportation Department.

The direct commission program is the major source of officers.

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[10] President's Commission on the Status of Women: Report of the Committee on Federal Employment. October 1963.

Table 55.—WOMEN ON ACTIVE DUTY IN THE ARMED SERVICES, NOVEMBER 1967

Branch of service	Officers				Enlisted personnel
	Total	Line	Nurses	Medical specialists	
Total	35,598	2,516	8,701	714	23,667
Army	14,871	924	3,005	436	10,506
Navy	8,190	550	2,352	88	5,200
Marine Corps	2,557	233	(1)	(1)	2,324
Air Force	9,980	809	3,344	190	5,637

[1] Medical needs supported by Navy.

Source: U.S. Department of Defense, Defense Advisory Committee on Women in the Services.

With few exceptions a bachelor's or higher degree from an accredited college or university is required for a direct commission as a second lieutenant or ensign. Most newly appointed officers receive military orientation and other training. At the end of their training period, they are assigned to a specialization, determined by the needs of the service and the education and background of the officers.

Enlisted women must have a high school diploma or its equivalent. Highly qualified enlisted women or noncommissioned officers may qualify for officer candidate programs conducted by each of the four services. Upon successful completion of these programs, they are commissioned as officers in their respective services.

Initial tours of duty for officers in the Women's Army Corps (WAC) are for 2 years. Enlistments are for periods of from 2 to 6 years. Women in the Navy (WAVES) are obligated for a minimum of 2 years if they are officers and 3 years if enlisted. Women in the Air Force (WAF) have a minimum service period of 4 years for both officers and enlisted personnel, while the Women Marine officers have a duty obligation of 3 years and the enlisted women from 3 to 4 years. The minimum age at enlistment, as well as the length of enlistment period, varies not only from service to service but also between officers and enlisted personnel.

Of all women officers on active duty at the end of November 1967, 79 percent were in the health professions. They were assigned to work within the medical areas of the Forces—Nurse Corps, Medical Specialist Corps, Medical Service Corps, and Medical Corps. Nurses alone accounted for over 73 percent of all women officers. Dietitians, physical therapists, occupational therapists, and doctors, as well as others in allied medical scientific fields, accounted for the additional officers in the military medical services.

The remaining 21 percent of the women officers were nonmedical or "line" officers. They performed a wide variety of duties, ranging from staff positions at departmental level to unit commanders in the field. These women were employed as logisticians and operations officers, information experts, finance and disbursing officers, personnel managers, scientists, and lawyers.

Most enlisted women are in military positions that are closely related to women's occupations in civilian life. Of all enlisted women on active duty at the end of 1967, about one-fourth were assigned to clerical and administrative positions such as clerk-typist, administrator, payroll clerk, personnel supervisor, and keypunch operator. An additional one-fourth of the enlisted women were medical technicians, that is, X-ray technicians, dental technicians, laboratory technicians, and medical corpsmen. Other enlisted women are in occupations that also have direct civilian counterparts, such as meteorologist, draftsman, photographer, data programer, air traffic controller, lithographer, electronic technician, and cook. However, many other enlisted women are employed in work that has no direct counterpart in civilian life. Examples of these are image interpreter, intelligence specialist, and cryptographer.

The military services maintain an educational program ranging from indoctrination courses for newly enlisted personnel to postgraduate degree courses at universities throughout the country. Many of these courses are aimed at training enlisted women to gain a skill either on the job or in one of the schools operated by each of the services. Selected personnel also may enroll in civilian colleges in degree-completion programs for the purpose of acquiring a bachelor's or higher degree. Officers selected on a "best qualified" basis are trained at civilian institutions at both the undergraduate and graduate levels.

Postgraduate education is available to women officers in the professional fields to which they have been assigned. In addition, off-duty college courses for credit toward a degree are conducted by civilian universities at most military installations for the benefit of military personnel. Tuition assistance is available.

Medical programs offer financial assistance from the Armed Forces to students in certain medical areas who will agree to serve in their specialties in the Armed Forces in return for such aid. The active duty required varies according to the amount of aid rendered.

The Veterans Administration estimates that at the end of December 1967 there were approximately 497,000 women veterans, about 2 percent of all war veterans. Of the 414,000 women veterans in 1965, 22,000 were veterans from World War I; 317,000, from World War II; and 75,000, from the Korean conflict. In addition, there were 400 nurses from the Spanish-American War. No recent information is available on the number of women veterans receiving compensation or pensions. Women and men veterans are entitled to the same benefits, such as life insurance coverage, reemployment rights, and educational benefits. Qualified women may also apply for Reserve service. Women reservists, depending upon their Reserve status, participate in weekly drills and summer training with their units. They may be called to active duty in the event of a national emergency, the same as men reservists.

56. Women in State Office

From 370 in 1965, the number of women in State legislatures declined to 318 in 1967—45 in upper houses, 270 in lower houses, and three in Nebraska's unicameral legislature. There was at least one woman in the lower house of every State in 1967. Women held seats in the upper house of 30 States. In New Hampshire 15 percent of the 400 seats in the house of representatives were held by women; in Arizona 15 percent of 60 seats in the lower house were held by women. Vermont and Nevada, with 13 percent, were the only other States in which more than 10 percent of the seats in the lower house were held by women. About 17 percent of the members of the Delaware Senate were women; in Connecticut and Maryland women accounted for 11 and 9 percent, respectively, of the members of the upper house. In Texas, Kansas, South Carolina, and Alabama, women were less than 1 percent of the members of the lower house. In New York and California no women served in the senate, and only five out of 150 seats in the house of representatives in New York and three out of 80 seats in the lower house in California were held by women.

In 1967 women in 19 States had achieved statewide elective positions other than in the legislature. One woman was elected Governor of her State. Ten women were elected to State boards of education, and seven each were elected secretary of state and treasurer. Others served as auditor, superintendent of public instruction, supreme court justice, registrar of State land office, and supreme court clerk. In Colorado five of a total of 23 statewide elective posts were held by women; in Alabama, four of 18; in Wyoming, four of nine; in Arizona, three of 18; in Utah, three of 19; and in Delaware, two of six.

57. *Women Mayors*

In 1966 a total of 100 women were serving as mayors in 30 States compared with 112 in 32 States in 1964.[11] States reporting women mayors in 1966 but not in 1964 were Michigan, Missouri, New Hampshire, Utah, and Wyoming. On the other hand, the following States had women mayors in 1964 but not in 1966: Alaska, Hawaii, Louisiana, Massachusetts, Oregon, Pennsylvania, and Virginia. In 1966 California and Iowa each had eight women mayors; Georgia, Illinois, and Kansas, six; and Oklahoma and Kentucky, five.

Another survey in 1967 showed women mayors in two States not previously listed—Delaware and South Carolina.[12] There were also five women mayors in Puerto Rico in 1967.

Several of the 20 States that reported no women mayors in 1966 listed many women holding important elective and appointive offices.

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[11] Survey made by the Montana Municipal League, Shelby, Montana.

[12] Montana Municipal League, Shelby, Montana.

3

WOMEN'S INCOME AND EARNINGS

Income and earnings, both strongly influenced by length and type of work experience, are two measures of women's economic status.

Income statistics, as reported by the Bureau of the Census, U.S. Department of Commerce, include income from all sources—not only wages, salaries, earnings from self-employment, rents, and returns from investment such as dividends and interest, but also income from insurance policies, pensions, old-age and survivors insurance benefits, and aid to families with dependent children, as well as other forms of public assistance.

Factors Affecting Earnings

Payroll earnings, the major source of income reported by women, are compensation received in such forms as wages, salaries, piece rate payments, and cash bonuses. These earnings vary widely among individuals since they are influenced by such factors as type of job, skill requirements of the job, character of the employing industry, geographical location of the plant or office, size of the company, and extent of unionization.[1]

Women tend to receive lower income and earnings than men, mainly because of differences in types of jobs held, job training, and continuity of work experience. Large numbers of women work in traditionally low-paying occupations and low-wage industries.

A significant difference between women workers and men workers is the intermittent nature of women's lifetime work pattern. Nearly all women workers interrupt their employment at some time for marriage and for bearing and rearing children. When they return to the labor force, many can work only part time or part of the year because of continued home responsibili-

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[1] Information on wages and salaries paid by employers for a specific job may be obtained from local public employment service offices. There are more than 2,000 of these offices in the Nation.

ties. Thus—whether clerical workers, operatives, or professional workers—they will have lost ground in terms of job seniority and work experience to qualify for promotion at the same rate as men.

Income of Families and Women

58. Family Income

The 48.9 million families in the Nation had a median income of $7,436 in 1966 (table 56). About 14 percent had incomes of less than $3,000, sometimes defined as the poverty level, and 46 percent received less than $7,000, considered a level of "modest adequacy." About 37 percent received $9,000 or more. An income of $9,191 in 1966 dollars was considered necessary for an urban family of four to enjoy a moderate standard of living according to the new City Worker's Family Budget.[2]

The median income of families has been rising steadily. In 1966 it was about $1,200 above the median income received 5 years previously and more than $1,700 above that received 10 years previously, even when expressed in terms of constant purchasing power which takes into account changing prices.

Table 56.—MEDIAN INCOME OF FAMILIES, BY TYPE OF FAMILY, 1966

Type of family	All families			Median income of families headed by year-round full-time worker
	Number	Percent distribution	Median income	
Total	48,922,000	100.0	$7,436	$8,693
Male head	43,750,000	89.4	7,803	8,845
Married (wife present)	42,553,000	87.0	7,838	8,861
Wife in paid labor force	15,005,000	30.7	9,246	10,071
Wife not in paid labor force	27,548,000	56.3	7,128	8,168
Other marital status	1,197,000	2.4	6,432	7,973
Female head	5,172,000	10.6	4,010	5,614

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census: Current Population Reports, P-60, No. 53.

One factor in the rise in family income is the increase in the proportion of families who have income from both earnings and other sources. The proportion of families with income from multiple sources increased from only 23 percent in 1951 to 49 percent in 1966. Such families had a median income in 1966 of $8,600, which was approximately $1,300 more than that for families with income from earnings only. Only a small proportion of families (2 percent in 1966) depend solely on self-employment income.

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[2] U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: "City Worker's Family Budget, Autumn 1966." Bull. 1570-1. 1967.

An increase in the proportion of families with more than one wage earner also has tended to raise family income. In 1951 only 39 percent of all families had two or more earners, while 55 percent had one earner and 6 percent had no earner. By comparison in 1966, 50 percent had two or more earners (13 percent had at least three), 42 percent had one earner, and 8 percent had none. The proportion of working wives among the husband-wife families with income increased sharply—from 23 percent in 1951 to 35 percent in 1966.

Increased occupational skills of the labor force have also contributed to the rise in family income. The proportion of family heads employed as professional or technical workers rose from 8 percent in March 1952 to 14 percent in March 1967. The median income in 1966 of families headed by a worker in this category was approximately 32 percent higher than the median income of all families with an employed head.

Income of husband-wife families.—Median income in 1966 for all the 42.6 million husband-wife families was $7,838. For the 15 million families in which the wife was a paid worker, the median income was $9,246. This was 30 percent higher than the median income of $7,128 for families in which the wife was not in the paid labor force. Seventy-one percent of the families with working wives had incomes of $7,000 or more compared with 51 percent of those with wives not in the labor force. (See sec. 22 for working wives' contribution to family income.) An undetermined, although small, percentage of husband-wife families had some income from the earnings of other family members. In a very small percentage of husband-wife families, the husband was not working.

Income of female-head families.—More than one-tenth of all families were headed by a woman in 1966. Their median income was only $4,010. Families in which the woman head was a year-round full-time worker did better—their median income was $5,614. However, this was still substantially below the $8,168 median income of male-head families in which the head worked year round full time but the wife was not in the paid labor force. In only 30 percent of the families headed by a woman was the family head a full-time breadwinner compared with 72 percent of the male-head families. Only 22 percent of the families with a female head had incomes of $7,000 or more. Detailed data from the 1960 census indicate that female-head families depend to a larger extent than do husband-wife families on income from other family members. (For other characteristics of female-head families, see sec. 20.)

Families living in poverty.—Despite the continuing rise in family income, 6.1 million families were living in poverty in 1966 (table 57). In 1959 poor families had numbered 8.3 million.

Of those families who were poor in 1966, 1.8 million were headed by a woman. Although families headed by a woman constituted only 11 percent of all families, they accounted for 30 percent of all poor families. The proportion of all poor nonwhite families that were headed by a woman was even greater—41 percent.

The likelihood of poverty is greater among families headed by a woman than among husband-wife families. The likelihood is even greater if the families headed by a woman are nonwhite. In 1966, 8 percent of the white and 27 percent of the nonwhite husband-wife families were poor. But 28 percent of the white and 60 percent of the nonwhite families headed by a woman lived in poverty.

Poverty is less frequent among both white and nonwhite husband-wife families if the wife is in the paid labor force. About 3 percent of the white husband-wife families were poor in 1966 if the wife was in the paid labor force; 11 percent, if she was not. The comparable percentages for nonwhite husband-wife families were 19 and 34 percent, respectively.

About 24.8 million of the 29.7 million poor persons in 1966 were family members. They included 12.5 million children under 18 years of age—7.5 million white and 5 million nonwhite. About 1 out of 3 children in both white and nonwhite poor families were under 6 years of age.

	Children under 18 years living in poverty in 1966					
	Number (in thousands)			*As percent of all children under 18*		
Type of family	*Total*	*White*	*Nonwhite*	*Total*	*White*	*Nonwhite*
Total	12,540	7,526	5,014	18.0	12.6	49.2
Male head	8,117	5,280	2,837	13.0	9.6	38.2
Female head	4,423	2,246	2,177	61.0	50.2	78.4

Nonwhite children were nearly four times as likely as white children to be poor in 1966. Forty-nine percent of all nonwhite children were members of poor families as compared with 13 percent of all white children. The incidence of poverty among children was highest (78 percent) in nonwhite families headed by a woman.

Table 57.—FAMILIES LIVING IN POVERTY,[1] 1966

Type of family	All families			Poor families			Poor families as percent of all families		
	Total	White	Nonwhite	Total	White	Nonwhite	Total	White	Nonwhite
Number (in millions)	48.9	44.0	4.9	6.1	4.4	1.7			
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	12.4	9.9	34.9
Husband-wife	87.0	88.6	72.3	66.9	71.3	55.6	9.6	8.0	26.8
Wife in paid labor force	30.7	30.3	34.4	12.2	9.8	18.4	5.0	3.2	18.7
Wife not in paid labor force	56.3	58.4	37.9	54.7	61.5	37.2	12.1	10.5	34.2
Male head (without wife)	2.4	2.3	4.0	3.4	3.3	3.5	17.3	14.6	30.8
Female head	10.6	9.1	23.7	29.7	25.4	40.9	35.0	27.7	60.2

[1] Based on the Social Security Administration poverty-income standard which takes into account family size, composition, and place of residence. The index in 1966 classified as poor those nonfarm households where total money income was less than $1,635 for an unrelated individual, $2,115 for a couple, and $3,335 for a family of four.

Source: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Social Security Administration, Office of Research and Statistics: Research and Statistics Note No. 23—1967.

59. Income of Women Compared With That of Men

Differences in income received.—During 1966, 61 percent of the women 14 years of age and over in the population and 92 percent of the men received some income of their own (table 58). The median income received by women, however, was substantially below that received by men. The median income of the 44.1 million women who had income of their own was $1,638, or less than one-third the $5,306 median received by the 60.1 million men with income. The median wage or salary income of women was $2,149; that of men, $5,693. The difference in the income of year-round full-time workers was not as great, but was still substantial. Women year-round full-time workers had a median wage or salary income of $3,973; men, $6,848.

Table 58.—INCOME OF WOMEN AND MEN, 1966

(Persons 14 years of age and over)

	Total money income		Wage or salary income	
	Women	Men	Women	Men
TOTAL INCOME RECIPIENTS				
Number (in thousands)	44,067	60,088	31,455	48,125
Percent of population	61.0	92.0	43.6	73.7
Median income	$1,638	$5,306	$2,149	$5,693
Percent distribution				
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Under $1,000	35.9	12.9	32.7	13.7
$1,000 to $1,999	19.4	10.1	15.1	6.6
$2,000 to $2,999	12.6	8.2	13.5	6.2
$3,000 to $3,999	11.6	7.9	14.0	7.5
$4,000 to $4,999	8.2	7.8	10.1	8.5
$5,000 and over	12.5	53.1	14.7	57.5
YEAR-ROUND FULL-TIME WORKERS				
Percent of total income recipients	30.0	60.2	40.5	67.2
Median income	$4,026	$6,955	$3,973	$6,848

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census: Current Population Reports, P-60, No. 53.

A comparison of the percentage of women and men at various income levels further illustrates the striking differences between the total money income of women and men. For example, in 1966, 36 percent of the women with income but only 13 percent of the men had less than $1,000; and 55 percent of the women but only 23 percent of the men had less than $2,000. At the upper end of the income scale, only 13 percent of the women but 53 percent of the men had $5,000 or more.

Trends in income differences.—It is not unexpected that women receive a smaller average annual income than do men when total wage or salary incomes are compared, since a much smaller proportion of women than men work full time the year round. In 1966, for instance, only 41 percent of the women but 67 percent of the men were full-time year-round workers. (For a discussion of women's part-time and part-year work patterns, see secs. 31, 34, and 35.)

However, a comparison of median wage or salary incomes of full-time year-round women and men workers reveals not only that the incomes of women are considerably less than those of men but also that the gap has widened in recent years (chart P). In 1956, for example, among full-time year-round wage or salary workers, women's median income of $2,827 was 63 percent of the

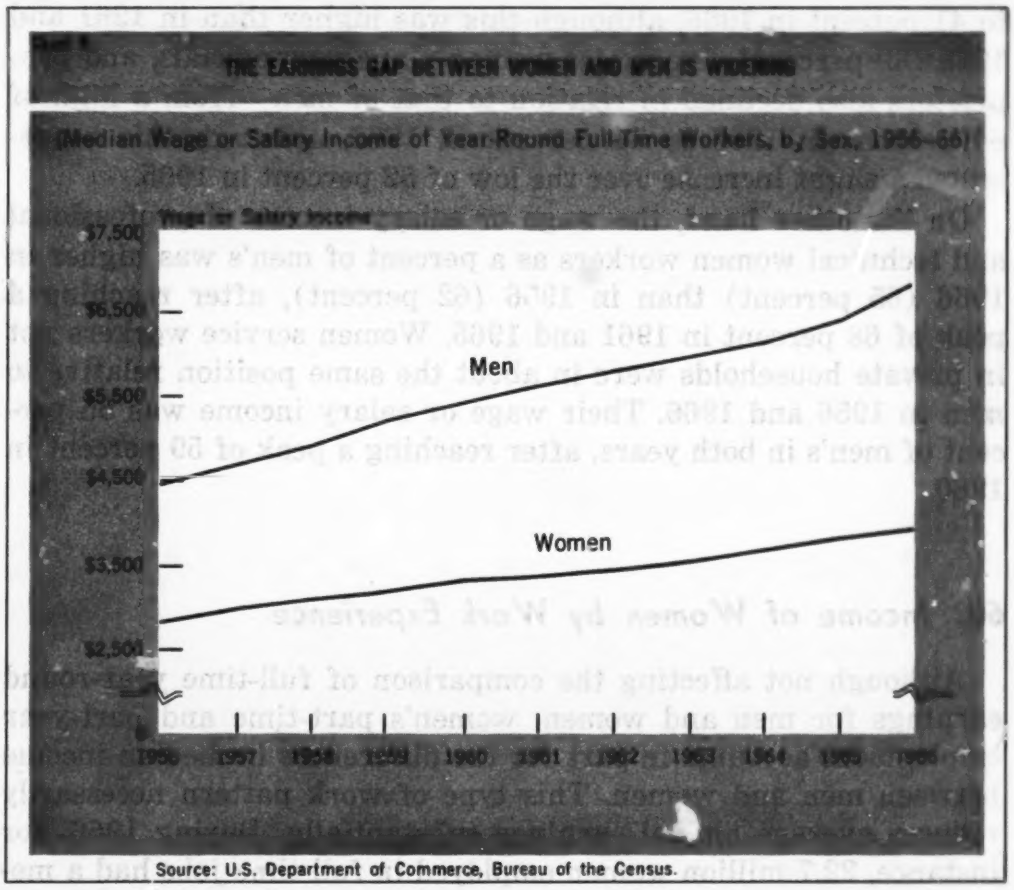
Chart P

THE EARNINGS GAP BETWEEN WOMEN AND MEN IS WIDENING

(Median Wage or Salary Income of Year-Round Full-Time Workers, by Sex, 1956–66)

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

$4,466 received by men. Women's median wage or salary income rose to $3,973 in 1966, while men's rose to $6,848. Both sexes had significant increases in income, but because women's income increased at a slower rate their median income in 1966 was only 58 percent of that of men.

Occupational income differences.—A comparison of wage or salary income of full-time year-round women workers in selected occupation groups with that of men shows that women's relative income position deteriorated in most occupations during the period 1956 to 1966 (table 59).

The median wage or salary income of women clerical workers dropped from 72 percent of that of men in 1956 to 67 percent in 1966; that of women operatives, from 62 percent in 1956 to 56 percent in 1966, after reaching a peak of 63 percent in 1959; and that of women sales workers, from a peak of 45 percent in 1957 to 41 percent in 1966, although this was higher than in 1961 and 1963 (39 percent). Income of women managers, officials, and proprietors also declined in relation to that of men—from a high of 64 percent in 1957 to 54 percent in 1966, although this represented a slight increase over the low of 52 percent in 1965.

On the other hand, the wage or salary income of professional and technical women workers as a percent of men's was higher in 1966 (65 percent) than in 1956 (62 percent), after reaching a peak of 68 percent in 1961 and 1965. Women service workers not in private households were in about the same position relative to men in 1956 and 1966. Their wage or salary income was 55 percent of men's in both years, after reaching a peak of 59 percent in 1960.

60. Income of Women by Work Experience

Although not affecting the comparison of full-time year-round earnings for men and women, women's part-time and part-year employment accounts in part for the differences in median income between men and women. This type of work pattern necessarily reduces average annual earnings substantially. During 1966, for instance, 22.7 million women employed in full-time jobs had a median income of $3,160 (table 60). In contrast, the median income of the 8.9 million women with part-time jobs amounted to only $827. There is also a wide income differential between women who work full time the year round and those who work part time the year round. Thus in 1966 the median income of the 13.2 mil-

Table 59.—WOMEN'S MEDIAN WAGE OR SALARY INCOME AS PERCENT OF MEN'S, BY SELECTED MAJOR OCCUPATION GROUP, 1956–66

(Year-round full-time workers 14 years of age and over)

Selected major occupation group	Year										
	1966	1965	1964	1963	1962	1961	1960	1959	1958	1957	1956
Professional, technical workers	65.1	67.7	64.3	64.8	66.1	67.6	64.0	64.2	63.7	63.6	62.4
Managers, officials, proprietors (except farm)	54.0	52.2	55.5	55.2	57.8	53.2	57.6	56.9	58.6	63.7	59.1
Clerical workers	66.5	68.1	66.2	67.7	68.6	69.5	68.3	68.1	70.0	72.0	71.7
Sales workers	41.0	42.4	40.4	39.0	43.6	39.1	42.2	42.2	43.8	44.5	41.8
Operatives	55.9	57.1	57.8	57.4	59.4	57.3	59.7	63.3	61.5	59.4	62.1
Service workers (except private household)	55.4	57.0	53.7	57.5	51.8	56.1	59.1	56.0	53.2	55.3	55.4

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census: Current Population Reports, P–60, Nos. 53, 51, 47, 43, 41, 39, 37, 35, 33, 30, and 27.

lion women in the former group was $4,026, while that of the 2.7 million who worked part time the year round was only $1,504.

Table 60.—Median Income of Women Workers in 1966, by Work Experience

(Women 14 years of age and over)

Work experience	Women with full-time jobs[1]		Women with part-time jobs[2]	
	Number[3]	Median income	Number[3]	Median income
Total	22,657,000	$3,160	8,943,000	$ 827
50 to 52 weeks	13,225,000	4,026	2,710,000	1,504
40 to 49 weeks	2,362,000	3,042	935,000	1,286
27 to 39 weeks	2,205,000	2,243	1,150,000	996
14 to 26 weeks	2,336,000	1,335	1,701,000	605
13 weeks or less	2,529,000	497	2,447,000	372

[1] Worked 35 hours or more a week.

[2] Worked less than 35 hours a week.

[3] Refers to women with income and includes members of the Armed Forces.

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census: Current Population Reports, P-60, No. 53.

61. Wage or Salary Income of White and Nonwhite Women

The median wage or salary income of nonwhite women who worked full time year round in 1966 was $2,949 (table 61). This was about three-fourths (71 percent) of the median income of white women, and an improvement over past years. The gap in income between the white and nonwhite groups had narrowed more significantly for women than for men during the 27 years since 1939, when nonwhite women received less than two-fifths (38 percent) as much as white women. In contrast, the gap for men narrowed by only 18 percentage points. The median income of nonwhite men who worked year round full time was 63 percent of white men's in 1966; it was 45 percent in 1939.

The gap between the income of nonwhite and white women workers is explained largely by the greater occupational concentration of nonwhite women in low-wage and low-skill jobs and their geographical concentration in Southern States, where incomes are lower than in other regions of the country. Some progress has been made, however, in raising the educational and skill levels of nonwhite girls and in opening up employment opportunities to them.

Table 61.—MEDIAN WAGE OR SALARY INCOME OF YEAR-ROUND FULL-TIME WORKERS, BY SEX AND COLOR, 1939 AND 1956–66

(Persons 14 years of age and over)

Year	Median wage or salary income		Nonwhite income as percent of white income
	White	Nonwhite	
	WOMEN		
1966	$4,152	$2,949	71.0
1965	3,991	2,816	70.6
1964	3,859	2,674	69.3
1963	3,723	2,368	63.6
1962	3,601	2,278	63.3
1961	3,480	2,325	66.8
1960	3,410	2,372	69.6
1959	3,306	2,196	66.4
1958	3,225	1,988	61.6
1957	3,107	1,866	60.1
1956	2,958	1,637	55.3
1939	863	327	37.9
	MEN		
1966	$7,164	$4,528	63.2
1965	6,704	4,277	63.8
1964	6,497	4,285	66.0
1963	6,277	4,104	65.4
1962	6,025	3,799	63.1
1961	5,880	3,883	66.0
1960	5,662	3,789	66.9
1959	5,456	3,339	61.2
1958	5,186	3,368	64.9
1957	4,950	3,137	63.4
1956	4,710	2,912	61.8
1939	1,419	639	45.0

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census: Current Population Reports, P–60, Nos. 53, 51, 47, 43, 41, 39, 37, 35, 33, 30, and 27.

Nonwhite women are also in an unfavorable income position relative to nonwhite men. Among full-time year-round workers, the 1966 median wage or salary income of nonwhite women was only 65 percent of that of nonwhite men. This was, however, slightly better than the proportion (58 percent) that the median wage or salary income of all women was of that of all men.

62. Income by Age

When women's income is analyzed in terms of the ages of the women involved, important differences are found in the proportions who receive income as well as in the amount received.

In 1966 the age group with the greatest proportion receiving income (83 percent) was that of women 65 years and over.[3] This proportion, which increased sharply during the 1950's and early 1960's, reflects the rising number of women who receive social security benefits and private or public pensions. The next highest proportion (70 percent) was among young women 20 to 24 years of age. Among women 25 to 64 years of age, the proportions receiving income in 1966 ranged from 54 to 64 percent. Only 46 percent of girls 14 to 19 years of age received some income.

In amount, the median income of women rose sharply from $423 for girls 14 to 19 years old to $2,126 for the young adult group 20 to 24 years old. Among women 25 to 54 years of age, it increased only moderately, to a peak of $2,758 for those 45 to 54 years old; then it dropped to $2,214 for women 55 to 64 years old, and finally to $1,085 for women 65 years and over. Men's peak income ($7,305) was received by those 35 to 44 years old.

63. Income by Occupation

The wage or salary income of women and men is obviously influenced by the type of job they hold. Occupations that require greater skills and more knowledge naturally pay better than those that involve only routine duties. Among women who were year-round full-time workers in 1966, the highest medians were paid to professional and technical workers ($5,826) and nonfarm managers, officials, and proprietors ($4,919) (table 62). In the clerical field, where nearly 1 out of 3 women workers was employed, the median was still relatively high ($4,316). On the other hand, women working as operatives earned only about three-fifths as much as women professional workers, and women sales and service workers outside the home earned about half as much as the most skilled group of women. At the low end of the wage or salary income scale, women private household workers averaged only $1,297 even when they worked full time the year round.

64. Income by Education

There is a definite correlation between educational accomplishment and income among both women and men: those with the least schooling have the lowest incomes, and those with the most formal education have the highest. The pattern shown previously, however, when the income and earnings of women and men were compared is repeated here: at all levels of educational attainment the median income received by women is substantially below the median income of men.

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[3] U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census: Current Population Reports, P-60, No. 53.

Table 62.—Median Wage or Salary Income of Year-Round Full-Time Workers, by Major Occupation Group and Sex, 1966

(Persons 14 years of age and over)

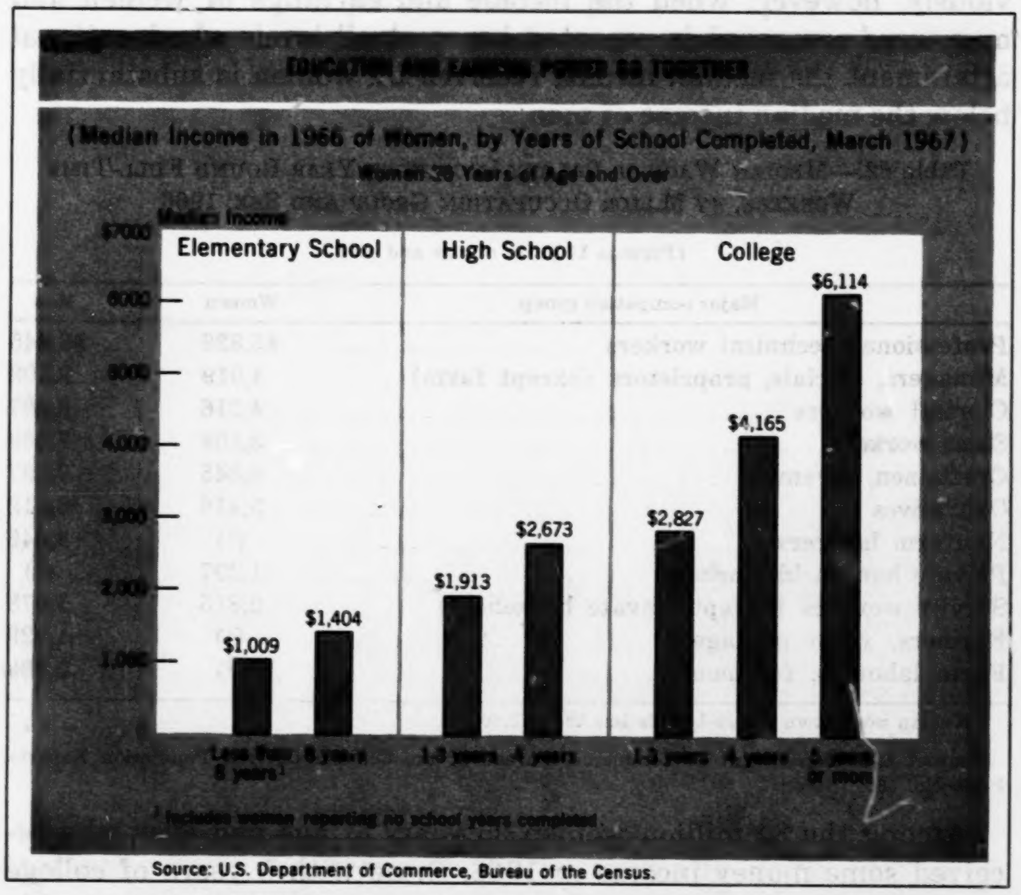
Major occupation group	Women	Men
Professional, technical workers	$5,826	$8,945
Managers, officials, proprietors (except farm)	4,919	9,103
Clerical workers	4,316	6,487
Sales workers	3,103	7,569
Craftsmen, foremen	4,345	7,197
Operatives	3,416	6,112
Nonfarm laborers	(1)	4,946
Private household workers	1,297	(1)
Service workers (except private household)	2,815	5,078
Farmers, farm managers	(1)	1,229
Farm laborers, foremen	(1)	2,489

[1] Median not shown where base is less than 75,000.

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census: Current Population Reports, P-60, No. 53.

Among the 34 million women 25 years of age and over who received some money income in 1966, those with 5 years of college or more had the highest median income ($6,114) (chart Q). Women who had completed 4 years of college had only 68 percent ($4,165) of the median income of those with first professional degrees or at least a year of graduate study, and women high school graduates had only 64 percent ($2,673) of the median income of those who had completed 4 years of college. Women with 8 years of schooling had only 53 percent ($1,404) of the median income of high school graduates.

A comparison of the median income received by women and men with equal amounts of schooling shows that generally the more education women have the more nearly their income approaches that of men. Thus among women and men who had completed only 8 years of school, women's median income in 1966 was only 31 percent of men's; among those with 4 years of high school but no college, women's median income was 39 percent of men's; and among those who had completed 4 years of college, women's median income was 43 percent of men's. The income of women with 5 years of college or more came closest (61 percent) to that of men.



Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

The one exception to the general rule was that women with less than 8 years of schooling received a higher proportion of men's income (36 percent) than did those who had completed 8 years. This may be accounted for in part by the fact that many women who have not finished elementary school are 65 years of age and over and are probably receiving social security benefits. (See sec. 65 for women receiving OASDI benefits.) Of the women with less than 8 years of education at the time of the 1960 decennial census, more than 2 out of 5 of those 25 years of age and over who had income were at least 65 years old.

A comparison of the income of women and men by educational attainment and color shows that in 1966 nonwhite women received less than white women, nonwhite men, and white men at each educational level, with one exception: among those with some college, the median income of nonwhite women was higher than that of white women—$3,964 as compared with $3,519 (table 63). This is probably accounted for by the fact that nonwhite women who have attended college have a stronger attachment to the labor force than do white women with this much education.[4]

The gap between the incomes of nonwhite women and men was less than that between white women and men. But irrespective of color, the gap narrowed as the number of years of school completed increased. Thus among nonwhites with an elementary school education or less, the median income in 1966 of women was only 38 percent of that of men; among those with a high school education (no college), 48 percent; and among those with some college education, 67 percent. The comparable percentages for white women in relation to white men were 33, 38, and 39, respectively.

Table 63.—MEDIAN INCOME IN 1966 OF PERSONS, BY EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT, SEX, AND COLOR

(Persons 25 years of age and over)

Educational attainment	Women			Men		
	Total	White	Nonwhite	Total	White	Nonwhite
Total	$1,926	$1,988	$1,561	$6,128	$6,390	$3,665
Elementary school	1,190	1,236	993	3,488	3,731	2,632
Less than 8 years	1,009	1,055	932	2,784	2,945	2,376
8 years	1,404	1,416	1,303	4,518	4,611	3,681
High school	2,368	2,421	2,057	6,576	6,736	4,725
1 to 3 years	1,913	1,960	1,698	5,982	6,189	4,278
4 years	2,673	2,700	2,475	6,924	7,068	5,188
College	3,569	3,519	3,964	8,779	9,023	5,928
1 to 3 years	2,827	(1)	(1)	7,709	(1)	(1)
4 years	4,165	(1)	(1)	9,728	(1)	(1)
5 years or more	6,114	(1)	(1)	10,041	(1)	(1)

[1] Not available.

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census: Current Population Reports, P-60, No. 58.

65. *Women Receiving Benefits*

Women are paid benefits under the Railroad Retirement Act, civil service retirement system, State and local government retirement systems, the uniformed services retirement system, and workmen's compensation. Some women also receive benefits under unemployment insurance, State disability laws, public assistance, private retirement systems, and other programs. However, by far the most widespread protection for women is the benefits paid under Federal old-age, survivors, disability, and health insurance. Some women receive retirement income from more than one source, and some receive some employment income as well as retirement benefits. For many, however, social security benefits are the chief source of income they can count on.

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[4] U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Public Health Service: "Graduates of Predominantly Negro Colleges, Class of 1964." Pub. 1571. 1967.

The Social Security Act of 1935, as amended, provides for partial replacement of income lost when employment is cut off because of age, disability, or death. The social security program is financed through a tax on workers and their employers and on self-employed persons, and is administered by the Federal Government. A series of amendments to the original act have extended its coverage, increased benefit amounts, expanded the classes of dependents who qualify as beneficiaries, protected the benefit rights of certain workers who suffer long term disability, and added health insurance (medicare) benefits. Disabled insured workers whose disability is expected to last for at least 12 months are eligible for benefits for themselves and their families, beginning with the seventh month of their disability.

Under the 1965 amendments, workers or widows who attained age 72 before 1969 and who had earnings credits for more than one-half year of covered work but less than that normally required to qualify for a benefit were considered as transitionally insured and were given a special minimum benefit, which was less than the statutory minimum for regular workers. The 1966 amendments provided similar special benefits for workers with less or no past earnings under social security, but reduced this benefit by the amount of pensions, retirement benefits, or annuities received from any other government system. In addition, the special payment is suspended for any month for which the beneficiary gets payments under a federally aided public assistance program.

The 1967 amendments to the Social Security Act provided for an across-the-board increase in cash benefits of at least 13 percent beginning February 1968 and an increase in the minimum primary insurance amount from $44 to $55. The average monthly benefit paid to all retired workers (with or without dependents) already on the rolls was increased from $86 to $98. Monthly benefits range from the new minimum of $55 to a maximum of $156 for workers with highest taxable earnings who began to draw benefits at age 65. The increase from $6,600 to $7,800 (effective January 1, 1968) in the amount of annual earnings that is taxable and that can be used in the benefit computation results in an ultimate maximum monthly benefit of $218, based on average monthly earnings of $650. The special payments to people aged 72 and older were raised from $35 to $40 a month for one person (including widows) and from $52.50 to $60 a month for a couple.

Eligibility for benefits was extended for disabled survivors, disabled workers, dependents of women workers, servicemen, and others. New benefits under medicare were also added. While social security benefits were liberalized under the 1967 law, revised welfare amendments placed new restrictions on aid to families with dependent children, including a requirement that welfare recipients, with certain exceptions, take jobs or work training. This work requirement applies only where adequate day care facilities are available. (For further information on the Work Incentive Program, see sec. 93.)

Under the 1967 amendments the amount that retired workers under age 72 can earn in covered employment without a decrease in benefits was raised from $1,500 to $1,680. Beginning with age 72 current earnings do not affect benefits.

Women may benefit from the Social Security Act in their own right as workers, or they may benefit as aged wives of retired or disabled workers, as widows, disabled daughters, or dependent mothers of insured workers, or as young wives or widows, if they have children of insured workers in their care. Certain divorced women also are eligible for benefits, as are certain students between the ages of 18 and 22.

A woman worker qualifies for retirement benefits if she is fully insured. How long she must work to be fully insured depends on when she was born—the older she is, the less time she needs to have worked under social security. The minimum requirement is three-fourths of a year of work under social security for a woman born before 1895. A woman born in 1929 or later needs a total of 10 years' work under social security to qualify for retirement benefits. The period over which her average earnings are computed can begin in 1937 or 1951, depending upon which results in a higher benefit.

About 11.4 million women received benefits under the old-age, survivors, and disability insurance programs of the Social Security Administration in 1966 (table 64). Women accounted for 60 percent of the adults who received some type of benefit.

The 4.6 million women beneficiaries who were retired workers 62 years of age and over received average monthly benefits of $70.79. Another 2.6 million beneficiaries who were widows 62 years and over without children received average monthly benefits of $74.11. The third largest group of beneficiaries were wives

Table 64.—Number of Women Receiving OASDI Benefits and Average Monthly Benefits Received, by Color, End of 1966

Beneficiaries	Total		Nonwhite	
	Number	Average monthly benefits	Number	Average monthly benefits
Total	11,418,853	-----	835,281	-----
Retirees 62 years and over	4,624,100	$70.79	361,412	$56.14
Wives of retirees, with dependent children [1]	171,223	32.64	31,696	23.97
Wives (62 years and over) of retirees, without dependent children [2]	2,458,819	44.60	118,514	33.97
Widows, without children [3]	2,599,178	74.11	144,300	60.61
Widows, with dependent children	487,755	65.57	87,141	48.60
Parents [4]	32,334	77.10	3,422	67.25
Disabled:				
Own disability	288,930	85.46	41,833	70.11
Wives of disabled workers, with dependent children	186,536	34.06	29,785	25.25
Wives of disabled workers, without dependent children	32,513	37.20	2,975	32.99
Women with special age-72 benefits	519,640	34.93	13,816	34.94
Wives of special age-72 beneficiaries	17,825	17.49	387	17.46

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[1] Dependent children include unmarried children under 18 years or between 18 and 22 if they are full-time students; also, unmarried disabled children of any age whose disability began before their 18th birthday. A wife with dependent children may be under 62 years and receive full benefits, which are 50 percent of the retiree's amount.

[2] If a wife without dependent children is under 65 years at the time of her husband's retirement, she receives reduced benefits; if she is 65, she receives full benefits, which are 50 percent of the retiree's amount.

[3] A widow receives 82.5 percent of the deceased spouse's benefit amount.

[4] The dependent parent of a deceased insured worker may receive benefits at any age, 62 or over. If there is only one surviving parent, he or she gets 82.5 percent of the benefit amount; if both parents survive, each gets 75 percent of the benefit amount.

Source: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Social Security Administration: "Annual Statistical Supplement, 1966."

of retirees 62 years and over without dependent children; they numbered 2.5 million and received average benefits of $44.60.

In 1966, 288,930 disabled women workers were receiving average monthly benefits of $85.46. In addition, about 219,000 wives of disabled workers were receiving benefits. About 85 percent of these beneficiaries were mothers; their monthly benefits averaged $34.06.

Nonwhite women were 7 percent of all women beneficiaries and numbered 835,281. Their average monthly benefits ranged from $17.46 to $70.11.

As a result of the 1956 amendment to the Social Security Act that lowered the retirement age for women from 65 to 62 years, there has been an increase in the number of women applying for benefits, even though early retirement means permanently reduced benefits. By the close of 1966, 50 percent of the women who were drawing benefits as retired workers had taken an actuarially reduced benefit. Of the women drawing benefits as dependent wives of retired workers at the end of 1966, the proportion with actuarially reduced benefits was 57 percent.

As of January 1, 1967, 98.3 million of the 125.0 million workers then living were insured for retirement and/or survivor benefits. Of these, 40 million (41 percent) were women.

A recent study of minimum social security retirement benefits showed that among those whose earnings qualified them only for minimum benefits, almost two-thirds were women.[5] About three-fourths of the women who were entitled to the minimum benefit were receiving benefits actuarially reduced below the minimum because they claimed benefits before age 65. Almost one-fourth of the recipients of minimum benefits were also getting public assistance payments.

66. Women as Stockholders

Women's participation in stockownership is another indicator of their economic status. The more than 12 million women estimated to have one or more shares of stock in publicly owned corporations in 1966 represented 51 percent of individual shareholders.

According to a study made in 1965, about 1 out of 6 women and men in the adult population (21 years of age and over) was a shareowner.[6] Sixteen percent of all adult women were shareowners compared with 17 percent of adult men. Women constituted 33 percent of the total stockholders of record reported by public corporations. The number of shares owned individually by women stockholders equaled 18 percent of the total as compared with 24 percent owned individually by men. The remaining 58 percent were held or owned by institutions, brokers and dealers, persons with joint accounts, nominees (who hold shares for others), and foreign owners. The estimated market value of the stock registered in women's names was 18 percent of the total compared with 20 percent for stock registered in men's names.

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[5] U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Social Security Administration: Social Security Bulletin, March 1967.

[6] New York Stock Exchange: "Shareownership—U.S.A.: 1965 Census of Shareowners." June 1965.

The likelihood of shareownership increases with the amount of formal education. In 1965 only 1 out of 18 adults with 3 years of high school or less was a shareowner. In contrast, 1 out of 7 adult high school graduates and 3 out of 5 adult college graduates were shareowners. Among women shareowners 1 out of 4 had graduated from college.

The highest incidence by occupation of shareownership in 1965 occurred among people employed in professional and technical occupations—in this group almost 2 out of 5 were shareowners. Among those employed as managers, officials, and proprietors, nearly 1 out of 3 owned shares; among those in clerical and sales work, about 1 out of 5.

The largest single group of shareowners in 1965 were women not in the labor force; that is, housewives, retired women, widows, and other women living alone. The nearly 6.4 million such women who were shareowners accounted for about 35 percent of the total number of individual shareowners and about 17 percent of the women not in the labor force.

Among adults who became shareowners for the first time between 1962 and 1965, about 52 percent were women. Twenty-nine percent of all the new shareowners were women not in the labor force.

Earnings of Nonprofessional Women Workers

67. Earnings of Office Workers

The main source of salary information for women engaged in clerical work is the Bureau of Labor Statistics' community wage surveys conducted regularly in 85 important centers of business and industry. These reports show average earnings for major office occupations and the number of workers in specified salary groupings.

Among women clerical workers surveyed in 14 office jobs in 17 selected standard metropolitan statistical areas during the fiscal year July 1967 to June 1968, secretaries received the highest salaries in most areas. Their average weekly earnings ranged from $95 in Memphis to $127 in Los Angeles-Long Beach (table 65). Average earnings of class A accounting clerks, which exceeded those of secretaries in Kansas City, Memphis, and Portland, Oregon, ranged from $98 a week in Dallas to $120.50 in San Francisco-Oakland. Senior stenographers' weekly salaries averaged a low of $93 in Minneapolis-St. Paul and a high of $113 in Los Angeles-Long Beach. Office girls were among the lowest paid clerical workers studied, with weekly salaries ranging from $66 in Dallas and Minneapolis-St. Paul to $84 in San Francisco-Oakland. The widest spreads in average weekly earnings, in addition to secretaries, were among Comptometer operators—from a low of $77.50 in Birmingham and Memphis to a high of $111.50 in San Francisco-Oakland—and payroll clerks—from a low of $87.50 in Memphis to a high of $118.50 in San Francisco-Oakland.

Although men represent less than 3 out of 10 of all clerical workers, their average earnings are usually higher than those of women clerical workers. This does not mean that women are paid less than men for equal work. Industries and establishments differ in pay level and job staffing. Moreover, there may be differences among employees in specific duties performed and length of service.

Men's average weekly earnings were substantially higher than those of women among class A and class B accounting clerks and payroll clerks in all 17 selected metropolitan areas. The weekly salary differential between the earnings of women and men ranged from $11 to $37 for class A accounting clerks, from $8 to $30.50 for class B accounting clerks, and from $7 to $30.50 for payroll clerks.

In most cities office boys received higher salaries than office girls. The greatest salary differential was in Seattle-Everett, where office girls earned $73 a week and office boys $87.50. However, in San Francisco-Oakland office girls averaged $3.50 a week more than office boys.

68. Earnings in Selected Manufacturing Industries

Detailed information on a nationwide basis and/or on an area basis is available with respect to women's earnings in selected manufacturing and service industries periodically surveyed by

Table 65.—AVERAGE WEEKLY EARNINGS[1] OF WOMEN IN SELECTED OFFICE OCCUPATIONS, 17 METROPOLITAN AREAS, JULY 1967–JUNE 1968

Metropolitan area	Secretaries	Accounting clerks, class A	Bookkeeping machine operators, class A	Stenographers, senior	Payroll clerks	Typists, class A	Comptometer operators	Keypunch operators, class A	Accounting clerks, class B	Switchboard operators, class A[2]	Typists, class B	Office girls	File clerks, class B
Atlanta	$113.00	$112.00	$ 93.00	$109.50	$ 97.00	$ 88.50	$ 93.50	$105.00	$ 90.50	$102.00	$ 78.50	$ 75.00	$ 77.00
Birmingham	108.00	107.50	96.00	106.50	88.50	83.00	77.50	86.50	83.00	93.00	72.00	68.00	68.50
Boston	108.50	102.50	94.50	96.50	90.50	86.00	84.50	90.00	82.00	93.50	75.50	69.00	71.00
Buffalo	114.00	112.50	98.50	106.00	102.00	90.50	82.50	99.00	88.00	103.00	77.00	69.50	76.50
Chicago	118.00	112.50	108.00	108.00	106.00	96.00	94.50	102.00	93.00	103.00	84.50	78.00	83.00
Cleveland	116.50	112.00	102.50	105.00	99.50	91.00	93.00	97.50	85.50	106.00	79.00	72.00	75.50
Dallas	105.50	98.00	90.00	101.00	95.50	80.50	84.00	90.00	85.00	89.00	72.00	66.00	68.00
Kansas City	107.50	109.00	99.00	99.50	98.00	86.50	88.50	93.50	83.00	99.00	71.50	70.50	74.50
Los Angeles-Long Beach	127.00	119.00	111.50	113.00	115.50	97.50	108.50	113.00	97.50	113.00	89.50	83.00	82.00
Memphis	95.00	98.50	87.00	97.00	87.50	83.00	77.50	85.50	80.50	91.50	68.00	67.00	69.50
Minneapolis-St. Paul	104.00	100.00	99.50	93.00	94.50	82.50	88.50	88.00	81.00	90.00	73.00	66.00	72.50
New York City	123.00	112.50	109.00	106.50	107.50	94.50	98.50	101.00	90.00	105.00	83.50	74.00	83.00
Philadelphia	115.50	104.00	99.50	99.50	91.00	90.00	86.00	94.50	81.00	97.50	73.00	68.50	72.00
Pittsburgh	114.50	112.50	97.00	99.50	102.50	86.50	95.50	97.00	89.00	102.00	79.00	71.00	77.50
Portland (Oreg.)	109.50	110.50	103.50	100.00	101.00	91.00	100.50	97.00	88.50	95.50	79.00	71.00	82.00
San Francisco-Oakland	122.00	120.50	115.50	111.00	118.50	93.50	111.50	111.00	100.50	103.50	84.00	84.00	79.50
Seattle-Everett	120.00	107.50	100.50	105.00	104.50	95.00	102.50	100.00	90.50	106.50	79.50	73.00	85.50

[1] Straight-time earnings for standard workweek.

[2] Operating a switchboard in a plant or office.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: "Occupational Earnings and Wage Trends in Metropolitan Areas, 1967–68." Summary Releases.

the Bureau of Labor Statistics. Area-centered wage surveys rather than industrywide surveys sometimes are conducted in manufacturing industries that are highly concentrated in a few areas of the country.

Cotton textiles.—The largest of the textile industries, cotton textiles, in September 1965 employed 82,836 women, who constituted 38 percent of all workers in that industry (table 66). A comparison with the wage survey conducted in May 1963 indicates that the proportion of women employed had not changed, despite an overall decrease in employment in the cotton textile industry. Since 94 percent of the workers were located in the Southeast, women's average hourly earnings in the Nation ($1.67) in September 1965 were the same as in the Southeast. The 2,670 women workers located in New England averaged $1.73 in hourly earnings.

Numerically, the major jobs held in this industry by women were those of ring-frame spinner, yarn winder, weaver, and battery hand. Almost all of the ring-frame spinners, yarn winders, and battery hands were women. Their average hourly earnings were about the same as those of men, except in the case of women battery hands whose average hourly earnings ($1.56) were slightly higher than those of men in this occupation ($1.48). Slightly more than half (52 percent) of the weavers were women in 1965. Their proportion had risen from 49 percent in 1963, even though there was a decrease in the total number of weavers employed in the industry. Weavers were the highest paid workers —women weavers averaged $1.99 (men $2.02) nationwide and $1.99 (men $2.01) in the Southeast.

Differences in average pay levels between women and men result partly from variations in the sex composition of the work force in plants and in jobs with different pay levels. Almost three-fifths (59 percent) of the women, for example, were employed in four occupations (battery hand, cloth inspector, spinner, and winder) that require less skill than the jobs typically held by men (card grinder, loom fixer, and maintenance machinist). Although men and women were employed in about equal numbers as weavers, they were to some extent tending the operation of different types of looms. Men accounted for three-fourths of the Jacquard loom weavers (the highest paid of the weavers —$2.19 for men, $2.09 for women), whereas nearly three-fifths (58 percent) of the plain loom weavers (the lowest paid weavers —$1.98 for men, $1.97 for women) were women.

Between 1963 and 1965, women made inroads into several of

Table 66.—Average Hourly Earnings[1] in Selected Occupations in the Cotton Textile Industry, by Sex, United States and Southeast Region, September 1965

Occupation	Number		Women as percent of total employed	Average hourly earnings	
	Women	Men		Women	Men
United States	82,836	136,641	37.7	$1.67	$1.78
Battery hands	9,261	463	95.2	1.56	1.48
Electricians, maintenance	--	687	--	--	2.21
Grinders, card	--	1,746	--	--	2.03
Inspectors, cloth, machine	4,570	831	84.6	1.62	1.69
Loom fixers	--	10,331	--	--	2.27
Machinists, maintenance	--	1,160	--	--	2.18
Spinners, ring-frame	18,776	186	99.0	([2])	([2])
Warper tenders	1,081	714	60.2	1.69	1.74
Weavers	9,833	9,242	51.5	1.99	2.02
Winders, yarn	16,602	200	98.8	1.63	1.74
Southeast	77,704	128,342	37.7	1.67	1.78
Battery hands	8,710	440	95.2	1.56	1.48
Electricians, maintenance	--	655	--	--	2.21
Grinders, card	--	1,672	--	--	2.03
Inspectors, cloth, machine	4,291	736	85.4	1.63	1.69
Loom fixers	--	9,672	--	--	2.27
Machinists, maintenance	--	1,106	--	--	2.19
Spinners, ring-frame	([2])	([2])	([2])	([2])	([2])
Warper tenders	968	676	58.9	1.71	1.72
Weavers	9,141	8,634	51.4	1.99	2.01
Winders, yarn	15,457	160	99.0	1.63	1.72

[1] Excludes premium pay for overtime and for work on weekends, holidays, and late shifts.

[2] Not available.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: "Industry Wage Survey—Cotton Textiles, September 1965." Bull. 1506. July 1966.

the predominantly masculine occupations in the cotton textile industry, such as card tender, slasher tender, slubber tender, comber tender, and twister tender. However, no women were employed in either 1963 or 1965 in plant maintenance work, as loom fixers, machinists, and electricians—the highest paid occupations in the industry.

Synthetic textiles.—The 40,571 women employed by plants engaged in the manufacture of synthetic textiles in September 1965 were 40 percent of all workers in this industry as compared with 39 percent in May 1963. In 1965 women averaged $1.63 an hour (men $1.82) (table 67). Seventy percent of the women in this industry were located in the Southeast. Their main occupations were yarn winder and ring-frame spinner, and they constituted almost all of the workers in these occupations. Women also held a large proportion of the machine cloth inspector and battery hand jobs. Women's hourly earnings were either a little lower than or the same as men's with two exceptions: average hourly earnings of women battery hands in the Nation were $1.54 as compared with $1.53 for men; of women yarn winders in the Southeast, $1.61 as compared with $1.60 for men. One of the highest paid occupations was weaver. Women weavers in the Nation averaged $2.06 (men $2.13).

Table 67.—AVERAGE HOURLY EARNINGS[1] IN SELECTED OCCUPATIONS IN THE SYNTHETIC TEXTILE INDUSTRY, BY SEX, UNITED STATES AND SOUTHEAST REGION, SEPTEMBER 1965

Occupation	Number		Women as percent of total employed	Average hourly earnings	
	Women	Men		Women	Men
United States	40,571	59,782	40.4	$1.63	$1.82
Battery hands	1,885	480	79.7	1.54	1.53
Electricians, maintenance	--	252	--	--	2.18
Inspectors, cloth, machine	2,722	543	83.4	1.60	1.71
Loom fixers	--	5,240	--	--	2.39
Machinists, maintenance	--	348	--	--	2.21
Spinners, ring-frame	4,399	435	91.0	1.67	1.73
Twister tenders, ring-frame	2,659	1,242	68.2	1.56	1.65
Weavers	2,925	6,349	31.5	2.06	2.13
Winders, yarn	12,263	287	97.7	1.60	1.60
Southeast	28,300	45,679	38.3	1.62	1.78
Battery hands	1,446	220	86.8	1.54	1.54
Electricians, maintenance	--	203	--	--	2.14
Inspectors, cloth, machine	1,862	374	83.3	1.60	1.71
Loom fixers	--	3,433	--	--	2.36
Machinists, maintenance	--	302	--	--	2.18
Spinners, ring-frame	3,769	363	91.2	1.66	1.73
Twister tenders, ring-frame	1,366	1,090	55.6	1.58	1.66
Weavers	1,641	4,162	28.3	2.04	2.09
Winders, yarn	8,622	107	98.8	1.61	1.60

[1] Excludes premium pay for overtime and for work on weekends, holidays, and late shifts.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: "Industry Wage Survey—Synthetic Textiles, September 1965." Bull. 1509. June 1966.

The difference in the average earnings of women and men in this industry varied among the regions. It amounted to 16 cents in the Southeast, 25 cents in New England, and 36 cents in the Middle Atlantic Region. Differences in average pay levels between women and men are partly the result of the distribution of plant employees by sex and among jobs with divergent pay levels. Differences in averages in the same job and area may reflect minor differences in duties. Women tend to be concentrated in the less skilled and lower paying occupations with the exception of weavers. However, fewer women than men are Jacquard loom or box loom weavers, who are the most highly paid weavers. The proportion of women box loom weavers declined between 1963 and 1965 from 34 to 23 percent. At the same time the percentage of women Jacquard loom weavers rose from 22 to 24 percent. Among the best paid workers in the synthetic textile industry are those in plant maintenance, as loom fixers, electricians, and machinists. In 1965 all of these workers were men.

Women's and misses' dresses.—Wage data were collected in March 1966 from plants manufacturing women's and misses' dresses in 11 metropolitan areas. About 56 percent of the nearly 89,000 production workers (both sexes) covered in the wage survey were in New York City. Women production workers in New York numbered 36,817 and received the highest average hourly earnings for women—$2.46; more than two-fifths were paid $2.50 or more an hour (table 68). They received their lowest hourly earnings in Dallas ($1.60). The proportion of women paid less than $1.40 an hour was 38 percent in Dallas—a much larger percentage than in any of the other centers surveyed.

Table 68.—AVERAGE HOURLY EARNINGS[1] IN THE WOMEN'S AND MISSES' DRESS INDUSTRY, BY SEX, 11 METROPOLITAN AREAS, MARCH 1966

Metropolitan area	Number of women production workers	Average hourly earnings		Percent of women receiving—	
		Women	Men	Under $1.40	$2.50 and over
Boston	1,582	$2.05	$3.44	8.1	21.4
Chicago	1,761	1.94	2.86	7.6	13.3
Dallas	2,509	1.60	1.88	38.0	3.0
Fall River-New Bedford	5,951	1.97	2.16	3.6	15.4
Los Angeles-Long Beach and Anaheim-Santa Ana-Garden Grove	5,208	2.07	2.84	11.5	21.7
Newark-Jersey City	3,575	2.30	3.01	6.4	32.6
New York City	36,817	2.46	3.50	3.0	42.8
Paterson-Clifton-Passaic	1,600	2.30	4.19	2.6	32.2
Philadelphia	3,878	2.08	2.70	4.5	21.3
St. Louis	1,757	2.00	2.64	3.3	14.2
Wilkes-Barre-Hazelton	7,139	1.88	2.01	4.6	11.4

[1] Excludes premium pay for overtime and for work on weekends, holidays, and late shifts.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: "Industry Wage Survey—Women's and Misses' Dresses, March 1966." Bull. 1538. December 1966.

In all areas women dominated the work force, but the ratio of women to men varied substantially. Women outnumbered men by at least 10 to 1 in Fall River-New Bedford, Newark-Jersey City, and St. Louis, whereas the ratios in Boston and New York were about 5 to 1 and 3 to 1, respectively.

Women had lower average earnings than men in all centers surveyed. The difference was smallest in Wilkes-Barre-Hazelton (women $1.88, men $2.01) and greatest in Paterson-Clifton-Passaic (women $2.30, men $4.19). Women's lower average earnings reflect the employment of numerous women in the lower paid jobs of examiner, thread trimmer, and work distributor. Virtually all thread trimmers are women, and they are the lowest paid workers in most areas. More than nine-tenths of the sewing machine operators in each area were women. Women were also predominant in all of the other occupations except cutter and marker in each area and presser in a few areas. Hand pressers and cutters and markers are the most highly paid workers in the industry, and most of these workers are men. Despite the predominance of women workers in dress manufacturing, few women have become cutters; and those who have become pressers earn lower wages than do men pressers.

The earnings variations among the areas partly reflect differences in market influences and manufacturing processes. In New York, for example, the single hand tailor system of sewing is predominant, while in Dallas, which had the lowest average earnings, the section system is predominant. In all areas but one, average hourly earnings were higher for single hand sewing machine operators than for section system operators. The difference ranged from 19 to 43 cents an hour.

69. Earnings in Selected Service Industries

Wage surveys were made in 1966 and 1967 in three major service industries employing large numbers of women: hotels and motels, laundries and cleaning services, and eating and drinking places. In contrast to the geographical concentration of the manufacturing industries discussed previously, service industries are located in almost every city and town. Generally occupational averages were highest in Pacific Coast States and lowest in Southern States.

Hotels and motels.—The wage survey of employees in selected hotel occupations throughout the Nation indicated that the largest numbers of women were employed as chambermaids and waitresses. Virtually all chambermaids were women. Their average hourly wages were slightly higher in metropolitan areas than in the country as a whole. In metropolitan areas wages ranged from $1.04 an hour in the South to $1.56 in the Northeast; in all areas they ranged from $1.00 in the South to $1.51 in the Northeast (table 69).

Table 69.—AVERAGE HOURLY WAGES[1] OF EMPLOYEES IN SELECTED HOTEL[2] OCCUPATIONS, BY REGION, UNITED STATES AND METROPOLITAN AREAS, APRIL 1967

	Chambermaids		Waitresses		Waiters	
Region	Number	Average hourly wages	Number	Average hourly wages	Number	Average hourly wages
United States	101,363	$1.25	47,536	$0.95	13,363	$0.98
Northeast	22,817	1.51	11,750	.94	4,515	.97
South	36,197	1.00	13,994	.70	4,211	.77
North Central	21,597	1.23	11,411	.94	2,102	.95
West	20,752	1.45	10,381	1.31	2,535	1.39
Metropolitan areas	73,026	1.31	30,534	.98	11,065	1.03
Northeast	17,943	1.56	6,276	.92	3,671	1.02
South	23,356	1.04	8,652	.68	3,223	.80
North Central	15,302	1.25	6,930	.94	1,847	.98
West	16,425	1.49	8,676	1.36	2,324	1.41

[1] Excludes tips and the value of free meals, room, and uniforms, as well as premium pay for overtime and work on weekends, holidays, and late shifts. Includes service charges added to customers' bills and distributed to employees by employers.

[2] Refers to year-round hotels, tourist courts, and motels.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: "Industry Wage Survey—Hotels and Motels, April 1967." Bull. 1587. April 1968.

Waitresses outnumbered waiters by more than 3 to 1. For the country as a whole, average hourly wages of women in this occupation were lower than those of men by 3 cents. The differential was greater in metropolitan areas, ranging from 4 cents in the North Central Region to 12 cents in the South. In metropolitan areas the average hourly wages of waitresses ranged from 68 cents in the South to $1.36 in the West; of waiters, from 80 cents in the South to $1.41 in the West.

Laundry and cleaning services.—Women, who constituted slightly more than three-fourths of the nonsupervisory inside plant workers covered by a survey of this industry in April 1968, received average hourly earnings of $1.56 compared with $2.04 for men (table 70). Regionally the difference in average earnings

Table 70.—AVERAGE HOURLY EARNINGS[1] IN LAUNDRY AND CLEANING SERVICES,[2] BY SEX, REGION, AND OCCUPATION, APRIL 1968

(Nonsupervisory inside plant workers)

Region and occupation	Women		Average hourly earnings		Percent of women receiving—	
	Number	As percent of total employed	Women	Men	Under $1.15	Under $1.30
United States	342,200	77.4	$1.56	$2.04	0.9	30.2
Region:						
Northeast	74,900	68.2	1.72	2.23	.4	6.5
South	126,600	81.5	1.36	1.67	1.6	57.2
North Central	94,100	81.2	1.59	2.12	.9	22.8
West	46,600	76.6	1.78	2.22	.1	9.6
Occupation:						
Assemblers	24,700	91.8	1.50	1.78	.6	31.7
Clerks, retail receiving	53,400	95.2	1.44	1.51	1.3	36.0
Finishers, flatwork, machine	44,500	96.9	1.43	1.78	.5	42.1
Pressers, hand (drycleaning)	5,700	95.0	1.86	2.29	1.8	15.5
Pressers, machine (drycleaning)	35,500	67.0	1.80	2.41	.6	22.0
Pressers, machine, shirts	33,400	97.1	1.59	1.80	.4	26.8
Pressers, machine, wearing apparel (laundry)	20,600	96.7	1.51	2.09	.8	34.7
Tumbler operators	2,400	55.8	1.39	1.75	1.2	44.6
Washers, machine	1,300	11.4	1.47	1.92	--	38.1

[1] Excludes premium pay for overtime and for work on weekends, holidays, and late shifts.

[2] Includes linen supply and industrial launderers and dyeing and cleaning plants (except rug-cleaning).

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Wage and Hour and Public Contracts Divisions: "Laundry and Cleaning Services—A Study of the Economic Effects of the $1.15 Minimum Wage and 42-Hour Maximum Workweek Standards Under the Fair Labor Standards Act." Submitted to the Congress, 1969.

ranged from 31 cents in the South to 53 cents in the North Central Region. Differences in average pay levels for women and men may be the result of several factors, including variation in the distribution of the sexes among establishments and among jobs with divergent pay levels.

Women predominated in most nonsupervisory occupations in laundry and drycleaning establishments. They were at least 9 out of 10 of all assemblers, retail receiving clerks, machine flatwork finishers, hand pressers (drycleaning), machine shirt pressers, and machine wearing apparel pressers (laundry).

Highest hourly earnings for women in this industry were received by hand pressers (drycleaning), $1.86, followed by machine pressers (drycleaning), $1.80. Hourly earnings were considerably less for tumbler operators, $1.39; machine flatwork finishers, $1.43; and retail receiving clerks, $1.44. Differentials between the average hourly earnings of women and men ranged from 7 cents for retail receiving clerks to 61 cents for machine pressers (drycleaning).

Eating and drinking places.—A wage survey of eating and drinking places in April 1967 indicated that in the establishments surveyed more women were employed as waitresses than in all other occupations combined. The average hourly wages nationwide of waitresses, who outnumbered waiters by almost 9 to 1, were 13 cents less than those of men (table 71). The wage gap in metropolitan areas was 15 cents. The lowest paid waitresses in metropolitan areas were in the South (76 cents an hour); the highest, in the West ($1.36 an hour).

About 37,500, or 1 out of 4, dishwashers in the Nation were women. Their average hourly wages were considerably less than those of men in the occupation and ranged in metropolitan areas from 83 cents in the South to $1.33 in the West. Comparable wages for men ranged from $1.03 in the South to $1.51 in the Northeast and West.

About 14,000 women were employed as bartenders. They constituted 15 percent of all workers in this occupation. Women had average hourly wages of $1.66 (men $2.12) in all areas and $1.69 (men $2.15) in metropolitan areas. Lowest average hourly wages received by women bartenders in metropolitan areas were in the South ($1.60); highest, in the Northeast and West ($1.76). Men's average hourly wages in metropolitan areas exceeded those of women by 64 cents in the North Central Region and 67 cents in the West.

Table 71.—AVERAGE HOURLY WAGES[1] IN SELECTED OCCUPATIONS IN EATING AND DRINKING PLACES, BY SEX AND REGION, UNITED STATES AND METROPOLITAN AREAS, APRIL 1967

Region	Bartenders		Waiters or waitresses		Dishwashers	
	Number	Average hourly wages	Number	Average hourly wages	Number	Average hourly wages
			WOMEN			
United States	14,038	$1.66	509,444	$1.01	37,523	$1.00
Northeast	3,047	1.74	137,875	1.03	3,764	1.26
South	2,651	1.59	124,265	.77	14,652	.79
North Central	5,459	1.62	160,138	.99	15,374	1.07
West	2,881	1.71	87,166	1.33	3,733	1.32
Metropolitan areas	11,543	1.69	371,714	1.03	19,939	1.09
Northeast	2,842	1.76	112,643	1.03	2,884	1.27
South	2,418	1.60	77,880	.76	8,166	.83
North Central	4,084	1.66	109,226	1.01	6,589	1.25
West	2,199	1.76	71,965	1.36	2,300	1.33
			MEN			
United States	78,884	2.12	57,861	1.14	105,344	1.32
Northeast	35,172	1.97	25,091	1.23	32,426	1.49
South	7,600	1.83	14,640	.81	24,023	.99
North Central	19,947	2.22	12,785	1.24	24,982	1.23
West	16,165	2.46	5,345	1.36	23,913	1.49
Metropolitan areas	67,888	2.15	51,194	1.18	87,911	1.36
Northeast	29,739	2.00	24,871	1.23	28,902	1.51
South	6,919	1.84	10,735	.82	17,586	1.03
North Central	16,458	2.30	10,272	1.27	20,665	1.24
West	14,772	2.43	5,316	1.36	20,758	1.51

[1] Excludes tips and the value of free meals, room, and uniforms, as well as premium pay for overtime and work on weekends, holidays, and late shifts. Includes service charges added to customers' bills and distributed to employees by employers.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: "Industry Wage Survey—Eating and Drinking Places, April 1967." Bull. 1588. April 1968.

70. *Earnings in Nonprofessional Hospital Occupations*

A July 1966 survey of earnings and employment conditions of selected hospital personnel covered all private and State and local government hospitals throughout the Nation. The occupations for which wage information was obtained included both professional and nonprofessional staff. Salaries received by professional hospital personnel are discussed in secs. 73 and 74.

Among the nearly 1.8 million nonsupervisory employees covered by the survey, more than 1.5 million were employed full time. About two-thirds of the nonsupervisory employees were in nongovernment hospitals. Part-time work was more prevalent among employees in private than in State and local hospitals and among general duty nurses than those in other occupations.

Of the women nonprofessional full-time employees other than clerical studied in the survey, the largest number (244,078) were nurses' aides. Other occupations in which large numbers of women were employed were practical nurse (121,528); psychiatric aide (74,717); kitchen helper (72,223); and maid (77,170).

The average earnings of nonsupervisory employees in State and local hospitals were higher than those in private hospitals, except in the South where they were about the same. Table 72 shows the average weekly earnings of women nurses' aides and licensed practical nurses and average hourly earnings in three occupations in nongovernment hospitals in 21 selected metropolitan areas. Highest average weekly earnings were reported for licensed practical nurses—ranging from $64 in Atlanta to $90 in Detroit. Nurses' aides had average weekly earnings ranging from $49 in Dallas to $82 in San Francisco-Oakland.

Women employed as flatwork finishers (machine), kitchen helpers, and maids—occupations requiring relatively few skills—were among the lowest paid in nongovernment hospitals. In the 21 selected areas, the lowest hourly earnings in these three occupations were in Atlanta; the highest, in San Francisco-Oakland.

Salaries of Professional Women Workers

Salary studies are not available for women in all types of professional work, but some salary surveys have been made by professional associations for their own membership or by research organizations, college alumnae associations, or women's organizations. Among salary studies periodically available are those made for school teachers and registered nurses.

71. *Salaries of School Teachers*

More than two-fifths of the 4 million women employed in professional and technical occupations in April 1968 were school teachers other than in colleges and universities. These 1.7 million women represented 71 percent of all noncollege teachers. In elementary schools about 85 percent of the teachers were women; in secondary schools, 46 percent.

Teachers' salaries reported by the National Education Association are not shown separately for men and women. Nevertheless, they are considered representative of women's salaries because of

Table 72.—AVERAGE EARNINGS[1] OF WOMEN EMPLOYED FULL TIME IN NONPROFESSIONAL HOSPITAL[2] OCCUPATIONS, 21 METROPOLITAN AREAS, JULY 1966

Metropolitan area	Average weekly earnings		Average hourly earnings		
	Nurses' aides	Licensed practical nurses	Finishers, flatwork (machine)	Kitchen helpers	Maids
Atlanta	$50.50	$64.00	$1.03	$1.03	$1.00
Baltimore	56.50	73.50	1.39	1.38	1.29
Boston	63.50	82.50	1.55	1.49	1.51
Buffalo	59.50	75.50	1.61	1.58	1.58
Chicago	61.00	82.50	1.46	1.46	1.46
Cincinnati	55.50	79.50	1.31	1.36	1.39
Cleveland	58.50	77.00	1.43	1.38	1.45
Dallas	49.00	66.00	1.28	1.08	1.18
Denver	61.00	75.00	----	1.29	1.26
Detroit	62.00	90.00	1.58	1.46	1.50
Los Angeles-Long Beach	69.00	85.00	1.69	1.55	1.55
Memphis	50.50	65.50	1.10	1.12	1.13
Miami	53.50	69.50	1.25	1.23	1.26
Minneapolis-St. Paul	72.00	76.50	1.89	1.81	1.80
New York City	69.00	89.00	1.81	1.76	1.80
Philadelphia	54.50	68.00	1.36	1.30	1.39
Portland (Oreg.)	69.50	78.50	1.77	1.74	1.76
St. Louis	55.50	73.00	1.38	1.33	1.37
San Francisco-Oakland	82.00	88.00	2.03	1.93	1.98
Seattle-Everett	68.00	77.50	1.76	1.68	1.71
Washington (D.C.)	57.50	74.50	1.38	1.38	1.39

[1] Excludes premium pay for overtime and for work on weekends, holidays, and late shifts, as well as value of room, board, or other perquisites. Weekly earnings are rounded to the nearest half dollar.

[2] Covers only nongovernment hospitals.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: "Industry Wage Survey—Hospitals, July 1966." Bull. 1553. July 1967.

the sizable proportion of women teachers and because salary differentials based on sex have largely been eliminated. In some instances, however, men teachers may receive higher salaries because of the subjects they teach, their longer tenure, or their greater educational achievement.

Although differentials between levels of the school system existed in the past, most school districts now have a single salary schedule, based on education and experience, for all teachers in their area. Some, however, pay higher salaries to teachers of vocational education, physical education, and other special courses.

Elementary and secondary school teachers.—Salaries of classroom teachers (both sexes) were estimated by the National Education Association to average $7,908 during the school year

1968–69, with elementary school teachers receiving $7,676 and secondary teachers receiving $8,160. By comparison, the average salaries of classroom teachers in 1967–68 were: total, $7,423; elementary schools, $7,208; and secondary schools, $7,692. Thus both elementary and secondary school teachers earned about 6 percent more in 1968–69 than in 1967–68.

Detailed information on the number of women classroom teachers and the average salaries paid to all classroom teachers is available by selected geographical areas for the school year 1968–69. Women classroom teachers numbered 1.3 million and represented 68 percent of all classroom teachers in the Nation, but their proportion varied from 62 percent of all teachers in the Far West to 78 percent in Hawaii (table 73). The average annual salary of classroom teachers in the contiguous United States ranged from $6,802 in the Southeast to $9,165 in the Far West. In Alaska it was $10,427; in Hawaii, $8,100.

Table 73.—ESTIMATED AVERAGE ANNUAL SALARIES OF ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS, BY AREA, 1968–69

Area	Women		Average annual salary (men and women)	Percent of all classroom teachers receiving—	
	Number	As percent of total		Under $6,500	$8,500 and over
50 States and D.C.	1,305,481	68.1	$ 7,908	28.0	31.1
New England	70,426	65.7	7,941	27.0	35.3
Mideast (including D.C.)	253,444	66.9	8,595	17.1	44.6
Southeast	317,630	76.4	6,802	48.5	8.1
Great Lakes	245,887	65.1	8,543	17.6	40.6
Plains	114,781	67.4	7,281	33.7	15.0
Southwest	116,661	68.5	6,824	37.1	11.9
Rocky Mountains	35,081	63.5	6,983	41.9	9.1
Far West	143,800	61.7	9,165	12.4	62.5
Alaska	2,138	65.4	10,427	--	85.3
Hawaii	5,633	77.9	8,100	28.0	39.8

Source: National Education Association: "Estimates of School Statistics, 1968–69." Research Report 1968–R 16. (Copyright 1968 by the National Education Association. All rights reserved.)

Twenty-eight percent of all classroom teachers received less than $6,500 in 1968–69, with the highest proportion in this category in the Southeast (49 percent). In contrast, 31 percent of the teachers received a salary of $8,500 or more, with the highest proportion for the contiguous United States in the Far West (63 percent) and for the noncontiguous United States in Alaska (85 percent).

Minimum and maximum salaries of teachers differ considerably among the various school systems. A survey of minimum and maximum salaries of teachers employed for the school year 1968–69 in systems with enrollment of at least 6,000 pupils showed that median salaries of beginning teachers with a bachelor's degree were $6,300 (enrollment of 100,000 or more pupils), and $6,000 (enrollment of less than 100,000).[7] The median minimum salaries of teachers with a master's degree were $7,000 (enrollment of 100,000 or more), $6,448 (enrollment of 50,000 to 99,999), $6,600 (enrollment of 12,000 to 49,999), $6,550 (enrollment of 6,000 to 11,999), $6,480 (enrollment of 3,000 to 5,999), and $6,426 (enrollment of 1,200 to 2,999).

The 1968–69 maximum salaries paid in recognition of experience to teachers with a bachelor's degree were about 38 to 63 percent above minimum salaries. For teachers with a master's degree, the maximum salaries exceeded the minimums by 50 to 59 percent. The medians of the maximum salaries received by noncollege teachers with the highest level of preparation ranged from $11,000 to $12,366.

College and university teachers.—Women represented 18 percent of the faculties in colleges and universities and numbered 26,734 in 1965–66 (table 74). The median annual salary received by women college teachers for 9 months of full-time teaching was $7,732; the range was from $6,454 for instructors to $11,649 for professors. Differences in medians from one major teaching level to the next were at least $1,400.

Table 74.—MEDIAN ANNUAL SALARIES OF TEACHING STAFF IN COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES, BY SEX, 1965–66

Teaching staff	Number		Median annual salary	
	Women	Men	Women	Men
Total	26,734	118,641	$ 7,732	$ 9,275
Professors	3,149	32,873	11,649	12,768
Associate professors	5,148	28,892	9,322	10,064
Assistant professors	8,983	37,232	7,870	8,446
Instructors	9,454	19,644	6,454	6,864

Source: National Education Association: "Salaries in Higher Education, 1965–66." Research Report 1966–R 2. (Copyright 1966 by the National Education Association. All rights reserved.)

Women teachers received a higher median salary ($8,195) in public universities with enrollment of 10,000 and over than in any other type of institution of higher learning. Those in State colleges received the next highest median salary ($8,113), and those in small private colleges with enrollment of less than 500 had the lowest ($6,265).

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[7] National Education Association: "Salary Schedules for Teachers, 1968–69." Research Report 1968–R 13. 1968.

Salaries for administrative positions in colleges and universities are not reported by sex. Among 32 positions listed for administrative officers, deans of women received the second lowest median salary ($10,289) for a full 12 months in 1967–68.[8] Also low were the median salaries of directors of student financial aid ($9,424), registrars ($10,366), deans or directors of student placement ($10,606), and directors of public relations ($10,823). Among deans of professional and graduate schools were deans of home economics ($18,417) and of nursing ($16,550)—two posts usually held by women.

Junior college teachers.—The 5,717 women teachers employed by public junior colleges in 1965–66 had a median salary of $7,830; the 1,100 women teachers in private junior colleges, $6,114.[9] With salaries computed on the basis of 9 months' service, women's medians were lower than men's by $575 in public junior colleges and by $550 in private junior colleges.

72. Salaries of Professional and Technical Workers in Private Industry

A survey of salaries paid by private industry in June 1968 to selected professional, administrative, technical, and clerical personnel indicated that although women accounted for approximately one-half of the total employment in the occupations studied, they were employed largely in clerical positions.[10]

Women were a relatively small proportion of the total employed in professional and technical occupations. They accounted for almost one-fourth of the draftsmen-tracers but less than one-twentieth of the three draftsmen levels combined. Women were about one-fifth of the engineering technicians at level I but less than one-twentieth of such technicians at levels II through V combined. The median annual salaries for these technical occupations ranged from $4,811 for draftsmen-tracers and $5,496 for engineering technicians I to $8,998 for draftsmen III and $9,648 for engineering technicians V.

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[8] National Education Association: "Salaries in Higher Education, 1967–68." Research Report 1968–R 7. 1968.

[9] National Education Association: "Salaries in Higher Education, 1965–66." Research Report 1966–R 2. 1966.

[10] U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: "National Survey of Professional, Administrative, Technical, and Clerical Pay, June 1968." Bull. 1617. January 1969.

In the professional and administrative occupations, women were reported employed mainly in the first few levels. They accounted for at least 10 but less than 25 percent of the accountants I, job analysts II, chemists I and II, buyers I, and managers of office services I. The median annual salaries for these occupations ranged from $7,296 for buyers I to $9,192 for managers of office services I.

73. Salaries in Professional Hospital Nursing Occupations

Hospital occupations cover a wide range of skills and functions. Full-time registered professional nurses and other professional and technical employees accounted for one-sixth of hospital personnel in July 1966.

Table 75 shows the median weekly earnings of women in five nursing occupations in nongovernment hospitals in 21 metropolitan areas in July 1966. Highest median earnings were received by directors of nursing. In most of the areas, supervisors of nursing received the second highest median earnings, followed by nursing instructors, head nurses, and general duty nurses. In the 16 metropolitan areas in which the earnings of directors of nursing were reported, the highest weekly salary was in Washington, D.C. ($204.50); the lowest, in Dallas ($121.00). In those areas for which the median earnings of supervisors were reported, New York had the highest; Atlanta, the lowest. For nursing instructors and head nurses, highest earnings were reported in San Francisco-Oakland; lowest, in Atlanta. Earnings generally were higher in State and local government hospitals than in private hospitals. Also they were higher in large cities than in small ones and in the West than in other regions. Earnings were lowest in the South—general duty nurses in the South received 22 percent less weekly, on the average, than those in the West.

Hospital nurses worked 40 hours a week in most areas surveyed. For work after 40 hours, they usually received either compensatory time off or straight-time pay. Nurses on late shifts generally were paid a shift differential.

During the latter half of 1966, nurses gained very sizable increases in salaries. These are not reflected in table 75. However, a spot check by the Bureau of Labor Statistics indicated that increases were granted by a majority of the hospitals in 11 of the 21 areas. In addition, a limited study of salary ranges in non-Federal short term general hospitals conducted in April 1967 pro-

Table 75.—MEDIAN WEEKLY EARNINGS[1] OF WOMEN IN SELECTED HOSPITAL[2] NURSING OCCUPATIONS, 21 METROPOLITAN AREAS, JULY 1966

Metropolitan area	Directors of nursing	Supervisors of nursing	Head nurses	General duty nurses	Nursing instructors
Atlanta	-----	$107.50	$102.00	$ 91.00	$101.50
Baltimore	$138.50	133.00	115.00	98.50	127.50
Boston	163.50	130.00	120.50	102.50	128.00
Buffalo	-----	133.50	114.50	103.00	125.50
Chicago	168.50	137.50	122.50	110.00	132.00
Cincinnati	-----	135.00	117.00	100.00	118.00
Cleveland	154.50	139.00	124.00	107.00	128.00
Dallas	121.00	121.00	107.50	104.00	110.00
Denver	138.50	125.50	115.00	97.00	123.00
Detroit	167.50	148.00	130.50	118.50	144.00
Los Angeles-Long Beach	164.00	133.00	123.50	110.50	132.50
Memphis	-----	-----	105.00	97.00	107.50
Miami	162.00	115.00	105.00	95.00	-----
Minneapolis-St. Paul	161.50	127.00	116.50	102.00	117.00
New York City	-----	150.50	132.50	119.00	-----
Philadelphia	173.00	123.50	105.00	92.00	125.50
Portland (Oreg.)	156.50	119.00	114.00	104.00	122.50
St. Louis	160.50	126.50	110.50	99.00	111.00
San Francisco-Oakland	202.00	150.00	135.00	117.00	154.50
Seattle-Everett	179.00	135.00	126.00	108.50	-----
Washington (D.C.)	204.50	131.00	116.00	97.00	124.00

[1] Excludes extra pay for work on late shifts, as well as value of room, board, or other perquisites. Earnings are rounded to the nearest half dollar.

[2] Covers only nongovernment hospitals.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: "Industry Wage Survey—Hospitals, July 1966." Bull. 1553. June 1967.

vided further evidence of rising salary levels for nurses.[11] Increases in starting salaries in the 103 hospitals that were included in the study ranged from 2 percent to 27 percent, with about one-fourth of the hospitals reporting at least a 20-percent increase. The median increase was about 13 percent.

An estimated 63 percent of all the registered nurses employed in the United States in 1967 were working in hospitals or similar institutions (table 76). About 19 percent were private duty or office nurses. The remainder were public health, school, or industrial nurses or were working in schools of nursing or nursing homes. One percent of nurses were men.

Private duty nurses are self-employed, and their compensation is individually determined. However, standard fees for private duty nurses for a basic 8-hour day have been established by State

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[11] American Nurses' Association: "Facts About Nursing." 1967 edition.

Table 76.—WOMEN PROFESSIONAL REGISTERED NURSES, BY FIELD OF EMPLOYMENT, 1967

Field of employment	Number	Percent distribution
Total	640,000	100.0
Hospital or other institution	400,000	62.5
Private duty, office, other	124,000	19.4
Public health (including school)	41,500	6.5
Nursing education	24,000	3.8
Occupational health	19,500	3.0
Nursing homes	31,000	4.8

Source: American Nurses' Association: "Facts About Nursing." 1968 edition.

nurses' associations. As of January 1968, these ranged from $20 in Utah to $38 in Connecticut.[12] From December 1957 to December 1967 the number of registered nurses listed with registries decreased by nearly 38 percent, and calls to registries decreased by 36 percent. One factor in the decline in the employment of private duty nurses may be the growth of intensive care units in hospitals.

Office nurses had an annual median salary of $4,500 for full-time work when surveyed in 1964.[13] The lowest median salary was in the Southeast ($3,900), and the highest was in Pacific Coast States ($4,980). About 43 percent of the office nurses regularly worked 40 hours a week; 37 percent, between 30 and 40 hours; and 12 percent, more than 40 hours. For 8 percent there was no report of hours worked.

Local public health nurses in staff nurse positions received median annual salaries of $6,460 in official agencies and $6,281 in nonofficial agencies, as of April 1, 1967.[14] Comparable salaries for local public health supervising nurses were $8,094 in official agencies and $7,886 in nonofficial agencies. By region, salaries were highest in the West and lowest in the South. These 1967 salaries reflect increases received by nurses during the latter half of 1966.

School nurses employed in public schools for the school year 1966–67 received average salaries of $7,297 (enrollment of 25,000 or more), $6,820 (enrollment of 3,000 to 24,999), and $6,005 (enrollment of 300 to 2,999).[15] The median salary in April 1967 for staff nurses in schools was $7,046.[16]

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[12] American Nurses' Association: "Facts About Nursing." 1968 edition.

[13] American Nurses' Association: "Facts About Nursing." 1966 edition.

[14] National League for Nursing: "Salaries Paid by Public Health Nursing Services—1967." *In* Nursing Outlook, December 1967.

[15] National Education Association: "Twenty-third Biennial Salary Survey of Public School Professional Personnel, 1966–67; National Data." Research Report 1967–R 11. 1967.

[16] See footnote 12.

Nurse educators employed on a full-time basis in December 1965 received a median annual salary of $6,600.[17] Median salaries were $6,240 for teachers in professional hospital nursing schools and $7,500 for teachers in collegiate schools.

Industrial nurses' salaries vary considerably among metropolitan areas. Between July 1967 and June 1968 women industrial nurses received median weekly salaries ranging from $98 in Scranton to $145.50 in Beaumont-Port Arthur (table 77). This would mean a range of $5,096 to $7,566 for a full year (52 weeks) of work.

Nurses employed in nongovernment nursing homes and related facilities received average hourly earnings of $3.04 in April 1968.[18] This compares with $2.90 in October 1967 and $2.28 in 1965.[19]

Table 77.—MEDIAN WEEKLY SALARIES[1] OF WOMEN INDUSTRIAL NURSES, 64 METROPOLITAN AREAS, 1967–68

Metropolitan area	Median weekly salary
Akron	$138.50
Albany-Schenectady-Troy	127.50
Allentown-Bethlehem-Easton	121.50
Atlanta	128.00
Baltimore	126.00
Beaumont-Port Arthur	145.50
Birmingham	117.50
Boston	124.50
Buffalo	128.00
Canton	124.00
Charleston	130.00
Chattanooga	118.00
Chicago	130.50
Cincinnati	127.50
Cleveland	125.50
Columbus	114.50
Dallas	122.00
Davenport-Rock Island-Moline	122.50
Dayton	141.00
Denver	123.50
Des Moines	127.00
Detroit	143.00

See footnote at end of table.

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[17] American Nurses' Association: "Facts About Nursing." 1967 edition.

[18] U.S. Department of Labor, Wage and Hour and Public Contracts Divisions: "Nursing Homes and Related Facilities—A Study of the Economic Effects of the $1.15 Minimum Wage Under the Fair Labor Standards Act." Submitted to the Congress, 1969.

[19] U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: "Industry Wage Survey—Nursing Homes and Related Facilities, April 1965." Bull. 1492. April 1966.

Table 77.—MEDIAN WEEKLY SALARIES [1] OF WOMEN INDUSTRIAL NURSES, 64 METROPOLITAN AREAS, 1967–68—Continued

Metropolitan area	Median weekly salary
Fort Worth	$131.50
Greenville	99.00
Houston	132.00
Indianapolis	132.00
Kansas City	127.50
Lawrence-Haverhill	123.50
Los Angeles-Long Beach	143.00
Louisville	123.00
Memphis	114.00
Miami	119.50
Milwaukee	127.00
Minneapolis-St. Paul	128.50
Muskegon-Muskegon Heights	123.50
Newark and Jersey City	127.00
New Haven	126.00
New Orleans	124.50
New York	134.00
Paterson-Clifton-Passaic	126.00
Philadelphia	120.00
Phoenix	128.00
Pittsburgh	122.00
Portland (Maine)	100.50
Portland (Oreg.-Wash.)	126.50
Providence-Pawtucket	113.50
Richmond	120.00
Rockford	114.00
St. Louis	129.50
San Bernardino-Riverside-Ontario	129.50
San Diego	137.00
San Francisco-Oakland	139.00
San Jose	140.50
Savannah	117.50
Scranton	98.00
Seattle-Everett	127.00
South Bend	122.00
Toledo	130.50
Trenton	127.50
Washington (D.C.-Md.-Va.)	117.50
Waterbury	117.50
Wichita	123.00
Worcester	119.50
Youngstown-Warren	125.00

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[1] Straight-time earnings.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: "Occupational Earnings and Wage Trends, 1967–68." Summary Releases, Nos. 1–3.

74. Salaries of Professional and Technical Hospital Personnel (Nonnursing)

Among women employed in private hospitals in professional occupations other than nursing, medical social workers generally were the highest paid in 1966 (table 78). Their lowest reported median weekly salary was in Boston ($120); their highest, in San Francisco-Oakland ($165). Medical record librarians were paid more than dietitians in some areas and less in others. Their lowest median weekly salary was in Dallas ($92.50), and their highest was in Boston ($135.50). The median weekly salary of dietitians ranged from a low of $105.50 in Denver to a high of $128 in

Table 78.—MEDIAN WEEKLY EARNINGS[1] OF WOMEN IN SELECTED NONNURSING PROFESSIONAL AND TECHNICAL HOSPITAL[2] OCCUPATIONS, 21 METROPOLITAN AREAS, JULY 1966

Metropolitan area	Dietitians	Medical record librarians	Medical social workers	Medical technologists	Physical thera-pists	X-ray technicians
Atlanta	-----	$101.50	-----	$105.00	-----	$ 88.00
Baltimore	$112.00	100.00	$149.50	109.50	---	86.00
Boston	115.00	135.50	120.00	100.00	$105.00	85.00
Buffalo	108.50	-----	-----	106.50	-----	89.00
Chicago	124.00	121.00	154.00	111.00	123.50	101.00
Cincinnati	112.00	-----	129.00	115.00	-----	90.00
Cleveland	120.50	125.00	132.50	106.00	120.00	89.50
Dallas	109.50	92.50	-----	98.00	-----	89.00
Denver	105.50	123.50	-----	104.00	108.00	80.50
Detroit	127.00	132.50	146.50	119.00	127.00	104.50
Los Angeles-Long Beach	119.00	132.50	164.50	138.50	133.00	105.50
Memphis	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	82.00
Miami	119.50	112.00	-----	96.50	-----	86.50
Minneapolis-St. Paul	106.00	117.50	-----	112.00	115.50	84.00
New York City	118.50	-----	149.50	111.50	-----	112.00
Philadelphia	106.00	115.00	122.00	93.00	119.00	77.00
Portland (Oreg.)	122.50	-----	-----	113.00	-----	101.50
St. Louis	111.00	108.50	-----	108.50	101.50	88.50
San Francisco-Oakland	128.00	114.50	165.00	141.00	129.50	113.00
Seattle-Everett	108.00	125.00	-----	110.50	-----	99.00
Washington (D.C.)	106.00	-----	-----	104.00	107.50	86.50

[1] Excludes extra pay for work on late shifts, as well as value of room, board, or other perquisites. Earnings are rounded to the nearest half dollar.

[2] Covers only nongovernment hospitals.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: "Industry Wage Survey—Hospitals, July 1966." Bull. 1553. June 1967.

San Francisco-Oakland. Medical technologists received their lowest median weekly salary in Philadelphia ($93) and their highest in San Francisco-Oakland ($141).

Physical therapists generally received higher earnings than did medical technologists. Therapists had their lowest median weekly salary in St. Louis ($101.50) and their highest in Los Angeles-Long Beach ($133). X-ray technicians were the lowest paid of any of these occupations—their median salary ranged from $77 a week in Philadelphia to $113 a week in San Francisco-Oakland.

75. Salaries of Scientists

A report on the economic and professional characteristics of approximately 205,000 full-time employed civilian U.S. scientists listed on the National Science Foundation's National Register of Scientific and Technical Personnel in 1966 gives information on the salaries of women scientists by major scientific field.

Women scientists were 8 percent of all registered scientists and numbered 20,164 (table 79). Three-fourths of the women scientists were in four major fields: chemistry (25 percent), psychology (21 percent), biological sciences (17 percent), and mathematics (12 percent). Subfields in which the greatest numbers of women were found were clinical psychology, biochemistry, organic chemistry, analytical chemistry, numerical methods and computation, and microbiology. Educational attainment of women scientists was high: 33 percent had a doctorate, 2 percent had a professional medical degree, 38 percent had a master's degree, and 26 percent had a bachelor's degree. Fewer than 1 percent reported less than a bachelor's degree.

The greatest number of women Ph. D.'s was among psychologists and biological scientists. Women with a master's degree were primarily psychologists, mathematicians, chemists, or biological scientists. Women scientists with only a bachelor's degree were mainly chemists.

The median annual salary of all scientists (both sexes) on the register was $12,000 (table 80). Bachelor's and master's degree holders reported median salaries of $11,000 and $10,700, respectively, while holders of doctorates reported a median salary of $13,200. The median annual salary of women scientists was $9,000.

Among women scientists, the highest median salaries were received by statisticians ($10,500) and economists ($10,300), followed by psychologists ($10,000); sociologists, anthropologists,

Table 79.—WOMEN SCIENTISTS, BY FIELD AND HIGHEST DEGREE, 1966

Field	Total	Less than bachelor's degree	Highest degree: Bachelor's	Highest degree: Master's	Highest degree: Professional medical	Highest degree: Ph. D.	No report of degree
All fields	20,164	99	5,305	7,677	306	6,595	182
Chemistry	4,995	20	2,458	1,261	24	1,175	57
Earth sciences	654	2	217	292	---	139	4
Meteorology	129	8	56	42	---	13	10
Physics	981	1	319	412	1	244	4
Mathematics	2,395	24	730	1,270	1	332	38
Agricultural sciences	50	7	14	21	276	8	---
Biological sciences	3,347	18	648	929	2	1,442	34
Psychology	4,233	1	66	1,995	---	2,161	8
Statistics	307	8	82	144	---	64	9
Economics	571	4	84	258	---	218	7
Sociology	581	--	12	226	---	343	---
Anthropology	171	--	7	13	---	149	2
Linguistics	267	1	43	102	---	119	2
Other	1,483	5	569	712	2	188	7

Source: National Science Foundation: "American Science Manpower, 1966." December 1967.

Table 80.—MEDIAN ANNUAL SALARIES OF FULL-TIME EMPLOYED WOMEN CIVILIAN SCIENTISTS, BY FIELD, 1966

Field	Women			Median annual salary of all scientists (both sexes)
	Number	Percent distribution	Median annual salary	
All fields	20,164	100.0	$ 9,000	$12,000
Chemistry	4,995	24.8	8,100	12,000
Earth sciences	654	3.2	9,000	11,400
Meteorology	129	.6	9,600	11,700
Physics	981	4.9	9,000	12,500
Mathematics	2,395	11.9	9,100	12,000
Agricultural sciences	50	.2	8,500	10,000
Biological sciences	3,347	16.6	9,200	12,000
Psychology	4,233	21.0	10,000	11,500
Statistics	307	1.5	10,500	12,800
Economics	571	2.8	10,300	13,100
Sociology	581	2.9	9,600	11,300
Anthropology	171	.8	9,600	11,500
Linguistics	267	1.3	8,600	10,000
Other	1,483	7.4	8,200	12,000

Source: National Science Foundation: "American Science Manpower, 1966." December 1967.

and meteorologists ($9,600 each); biological scientists ($9,200); mathematicians ($9,100); and physicists and earth scientists ($9,000 each). Median salaries of women scientists were from $1,400 to $3,900 a year less than the median salaries of all scientists in their respective fields.

Salaries of Federal Employees

As of October 31, 1967, the 659,403 women white-collar workers in the Federal service had an average annual salary of $6,403 as compared with $9,154 for men (table 81). Women were 34 percent of all full-time white-collar workers. Salaries ranged from $3,776 for grade 1 jobs to $27,055 for grade 18 jobs—as determined under the Classification Act of 1949, as amended. Effective July 13, 1969, salaries were increased so that they ranged from $3,889 for grade 1 to $33,495 for grade 18.

Differences between the grades and salaries of women and men arise not only from differences in types of jobs held, but also from differences in length of service. In June 1967 the average length of service of Federal employees was 9 years for women but 14.1 years for men. About 46 percent of the women but only 22 percent of the men had less than 5 years of service, while 64 percent of the women and 39 percent of the men had less than 10 years of service. A survey of full-time civilian employment indicated that total employment of women in higher level positions (general schedule grades 12 or the equivalent and above) increased by 12 percent between October 31, 1966, and October 31, 1967.[20]

Table 81.—AVERAGE ANNUAL SALARIES OF WOMEN FULL-TIME WHITE-COLLAR WORKERS IN THE FEDERAL SERVICE, ALL AREAS,[1] BY OCCUPATION GROUP, OCTOBER 31, 1967

Occupation group	Number	Average annual salary	As percent of total employed
Total	659,403	$6,403	34.1
General administrative, clerical, and office services	333,776	5,828	73.1
Postal	80,828	6,495	14.2
Accounting and budget	52,913	6,704	46.8
Medical, hospital, dental and public health	50,532	7,186	52.5
Supply	40,150	6,361	48.9
Legal and kindred	20,182	7,016	45.2
Personnel management and industrial relations	19,957	7,150	53.8
Social science, psychology, and welfare	8,934	9,683	26.9
Education	8,914	7,341	36.7
Mathematics and statistics	7,607	7,558	48.7
Business and industry	6,467	8,323	12.1
Information and arts	6,036	8,286	30.1
Transportation	5,982	6,695	18.3
Library and archives	5,045	8,073	65.4
Physical sciences	4,182	8,712	9.8
Biological sciences	2,636	8,106	6.3
Engineering and architecture	1,895	7,981	1.3
Investigation	803	8,109	2.3
Commodity quality control, inspection, and grading	529	7,870	2.5
Equipment, facilities, and service	310	8,545	1.6
Copyright, patent, and trademark	117	10,753	6.5
Veterinary medical science	24	11,169	1.0
Miscellaneous occupations	1,584	6,924	4.0

NOTE. Preliminary data

[1] Worldwide.

Source: U.S. Civil Service Commission, Bureau of Manpower Information Systems: "Occupations of Federal White-Collar Workers, October 31, 1967." SM-56-7.

The largest group of women full-time white-collar workers in the Federal service in October 1967 numbered 333,776 and were employed in general administrative, clerical, and office services.

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[20] U.S. Civil Service Commission, Bureau of Manpower Information Systems: "Occupations of Federal White-Collar Workers, October 31, 1967." SM-56-7.

Their average annual salary was $5,828. Women postal employees, who numbered 80,828, were the second largest group and had an average annual salary of $6,495. The third largest group of women were in accounting and budget work, where 52,913 were employed at an average annual salary of $6,704. The highest average salaries paid to women employed in the Federal service were in veterinary medical science ($11,169); copyright, patent, and trademark ($10,753); and social science, psychology, and welfare ($9,683). There were only 24 women veterinarians and only 117 women employed in copyright, patent, and trademark. However, women in social science, psychology, and welfare numbered 8,934 and represented 27 percent of total employment in these fields.

Salaries of College Graduates

76. Starting Salaries of Recent College Graduates

The jobs and salaries expected to be offered by 208 companies to June 1969 college graduates were reported in a survey conducted in November 1968 by the Northwestern University Placement Center. Almost all of the companies that responded to the university's inquiry made regular visits to selected campuses and actively sought college and university graduates. All but a few were large- or medium-sized corporations. They were located in 21 States representing all major regions of the country and a wide variety of business interests.

Since the companies that recruit at colleges seek outstanding senior students, graduates recruited on campus usually are offered higher beginning salaries than graduates who apply to a company's employment office after leaving college. The Northwestern survey indicated that although 40 percent of all college students today are women, many companies do not regularly recruit college women through campus interviews. For those women who do receive job offers at college, however, starting salaries have been rising at a slightly faster rate than those for men. Nevertheless, the spread between the offers made to men and women with the same college majors is still substantial.

Reports from 132 companies indicated that these companies hired a total of 1,871 college women in 1968 and that they planned to hire a total of 2,251 college women from 1969 graduating classes, an increase of 20 percent. Most of the companies reported that they would hire more college women if they were available, especially in such fields as engineering, data processing, accounting, and mathematics.

Starting salaries offered by the 132 companies to women scheduled to receive bachelor's degrees in 1969 averaged about $648 a month in contrast to the $609 offered in 1968. Women graduates to be employed in most scientific and engineering fields received the most generous job offers (table 82). For example, the proposed monthly salaries of women engineers averaged $806; general scientists, $750; chemists, $711; and mathematicians and statisticians, $707. The average monthly salaries offered to women in other fields ranged from $485 for secretaries to $692 for accountants. Increases in average salaries offered in 1969 as compared with 1968 ranged from $20 a month for economists to $64 a month for engineers.

Table 82.—STARTING SALARIES OF WOMEN WITH BACHELOR'S DEGREES, BY FIELD, 1968 AND 1969

Field	Number of companies	Average monthly starting salary		Increase 1968–69
		1969	1968	
Mathematics, statistics	40	$707	$648	$59
Data processing, computer programing	47	671	620	51
General business	34	592	570	22
Accounting	37	692	643	49
Liberal arts	17	575	522	53
Chemistry	15	711	690	21
Engineering	20	806	742	64
Marketing, retailing	14	601	571	30
Home economics	22	588	555	33
Science (field not stated)	10	750	708	42
Secretary	7	485	455	30
Economics, finance	4	602	582	20

Source: Endicott, Frank S., Dr.: "Trends in Employment of College and University Graduates in Business and Industry." Northwestern University. 1969.

77. *Salaries of College Women Seven Years After Graduation*

A resurvey of women college graduates of the class of 1957 was conducted by the Women's Bureau in 1964. Those surveyed were generally the same June 1957 graduates who participated in an earlier survey made in the winter of 1957–58 by the Women's Bureau and the National Vocational Guidance Association.

About half (49 percent) of the women graduates were employed 7 years after graduation. Of those employed in 1964, 9 out of 10 were in professional positions—a slightly larger proportion than 7 years earlier (8 out of 10). The increase probably was due to the improved job status in 1964 of some of the graduates, including those who had been graduate assistants, and to the relatively greater tendency of those with professional jobs to remain in the labor force.

Salaries of the June 1957 women graduates were, on the average, almost 60 percent higher in 1964 than in 1957–58. The average annual salary of the graduates was $5,947 in 1964 as compared with $3,739 in 1957–58 (table 83).

The highest average salaries earned in 1964 by the June 1957 women graduates were received by those employed as chemists, mathematicians, or statisticians ($8,039), followed by managers or officials ($7,466) and professional workers in schools, excluding teachers ($6,744). Teachers, with an average salary of $5,890, earned slightly less than the average for the total group of survey graduates, although they constituted 62 percent of those employed. Lowest average earnings were reported by secretaries and stenographers ($4,527), miscellaneous clerical workers ($4,813), and librarians ($5,658).

Fully 20 percent of the employed graduates earned $7,000 or over in 1964; only 5 percent earned less than $4,000. The graduates' earnings were generally highest in the West ($6,358) and Northeast ($6,266) and lowest in the South ($5,215).

The positive influence of advanced education on salary levels was corroborated by the $6,409 average salary of graduates with a master's degree and the $5,800 average of those with a baccalaureate only. The earnings of the few survey graduates with a doctorate were not reported because most were resident physicians in hospitals and had typically low earnings.

In terms of their undergraduate major, graduates with the highest average salaries in 1964 were those who had majored in mathematics ($7,517), chemistry ($6,535), or psychology ($6,393). The large group of graduates with an education major averaged $5,877, slightly below the average for the total group. Lowest average salaries were received by graduates with a major in music ($5,566) or business and commerce ($5,568).

Table 83.—AVERAGE ANNUAL SALARIES OF 1957 WOMEN COLLEGE GRADUATES, BY OCCUPATION, 1957–58 AND 1964

Occupation group	1964		1957–58	
	Number	Average annual salary	Number	Average annual salary
Graduates represented[1]	32,571	$5,947	63,945	$3,739
Chemists, mathematicians, statisticians	569	8,039	--	--
Chemists	--	--	569	4,847
Mathematicians, statisticians	--	--	627	4,675
Clerical workers (miscellaneous)	1,010	4,813	--	--
Advertising, editorial assistants	--	--	764	3,278
Bookkeepers, accounting clerks	--	--	544	3,407
Library assistants	--	--	329	3,097
Personnel assistants	--	--	447	3,676
Typists	--	--	449	3,104
Other clerical workers	--	--	2,049	3,247
Dietitians, home economists	527	6,110	--	--
Dietitians	--	--	401	3,576
Home economists	--	--	808	4,040
Editors, copywriters, reporters	585	6,274	542	3,397
Librarians	646	5,658	--	--
Managers, officials	511	7,466	--	--
Nurses	1,930	6,078	4,302	3,875
Professional workers (miscellaneous)	1,775	6,557	--	--
Religious workers	--	--	370	3,167
Other professional workers	--	--	2,125	3,862
Research workers	310	6,388	626	3,971
School workers (miscellaneous)	674	6,744	--	--
Secretaries, stenographers	1,410	4,527	4,089	3,295
Social, welfare, recreation workers	1,230	6,137	--	--
Recreation workers	--	--	543	3,655
Social, welfare workers	--	--	1,266	3,792
Teachers	20,140	5,890	39,320	3,799
Kindergarten	728	6,060	--	--
Elementary school	11,243	5,843	25,549	3,858
Junior high school	2,682	5,837	4,613	3,785
Senior high school	3,856	5,852	8,290	3,658
Other	1,631	6,313	868	3,475
Technicians (biological)	732	5,843	1,586	3,854
Therapists	316	6,214	701	3,947

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[1] Excludes part-time workers and those employed outside the United States in 1964. Includes a few graduates who had an occupation not listed.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Wage and Labor Standards Administration, Women's Bureau: "College Women Seven Years After Graduation: Resurvey of Women Graduates—Class of 1957." Bull. 292. 1966.

4

EDUCATION, TRAINING, AND EMPLOYMENT OF WOMEN

The continuing growth of our economy depends in large measure on the amount of trained manpower or womanpower available. Recent changes in technology demand better trained and educated workers. Few employment opportunities are open to the illiterate or to those with a limited number of years of formal education. The amount and type of education or training a woman has received affect not only the likelihood of her being employed but also the type of job she may hold and the regularity of her employment. Thus any discussion of women workers would be incomplete without some recognition of the vocational benefits that accompany the social and cultural values of education.

Education of Women in the Population and Labor Force[1]

In March 1968 women 18 years of age and over in the labor force had slightly more schooling on the average than did all women of this age group in the population—a median of 12.4 years for workers and a median of 12.2 years for the population (table 84). Almost 11 percent of the women in the labor force had completed 4 years of college or more compared with only 8 percent of the woman population. Forty-four percent of the women in the work force had completed their education with high school graduation compared with 38 percent of the women in the population. At the lower end of the educational scale, only 16 percent of the women workers had an eighth grade education or less compared with 24 percent of the women in the population. And women with less than 5 years of schooling were less than half as prevalent in the labor force as in the population. Among men there is less difference between the educational attainment of those in the labor force and those in the population, since most men in the population are also in the labor force.

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[1] See also "Trends in Educational Attainment of Women." Women's Bureau, Wage and Labor Standards Administration, U.S. Department of Labor, October 1969.

Table 84.—EDUCATONAL ATTAINMENT OF THE POPULATION AND OF WORKERS, BY SEX, MARCH 1968

(Persons 18 years of age and over)

Years of school completed	Population		Labor force	
	Women	Men	Women	Men
Number (in thousands)	66,288	57,989	27,846	47,255
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Elementary school:				
Less than 5 years[1]	4.4	5.5	1.8	3.4
5 to 7 years	8.1	8.9	5.4	7.4
8 years	11.8	12.5	8.7	11.2
High school:				
1 to 3 years	18.6	17.9	17.6	18.6
4 years	38.2	30.6	43.7	33.8
College:				
1 to 3 years	11.3	12.4	12.3	12.2
4 years	5.7	6.9	7.4	7.7
5 years or more	1.9	5.3	3.1	5.9
Median years of school completed	12.2	12.2	12.4	12.3

[1] Includes persons reporting no school years completed.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Special Labor Force Report No. 103.

78. Education of Women Workers

More than 18.5 million, or 67 percent, of the women 18 years of age and over in the labor force in March 1968 had at least a high school education (chart R). Of these, 2.9 million were college graduates, including 868,000 who had had 5 years of college or more. More than 3.4 million had completed 1 to 3 years of college. More than 2 million women workers had not finished elementary school, and 100,000 of these had not attended school at all.

In March 1968 nonwhite women workers had completed a median of 11.7 years of schooling compared with 12.4 years for white women workers (chart S). The difference in the amount of education completed by nonwhite and white women not in the labor force—9.4 and 12.1 years, respectively—was greater. However, the median educational attainment of nonwhite women workers was a year more than that of their male counterparts.

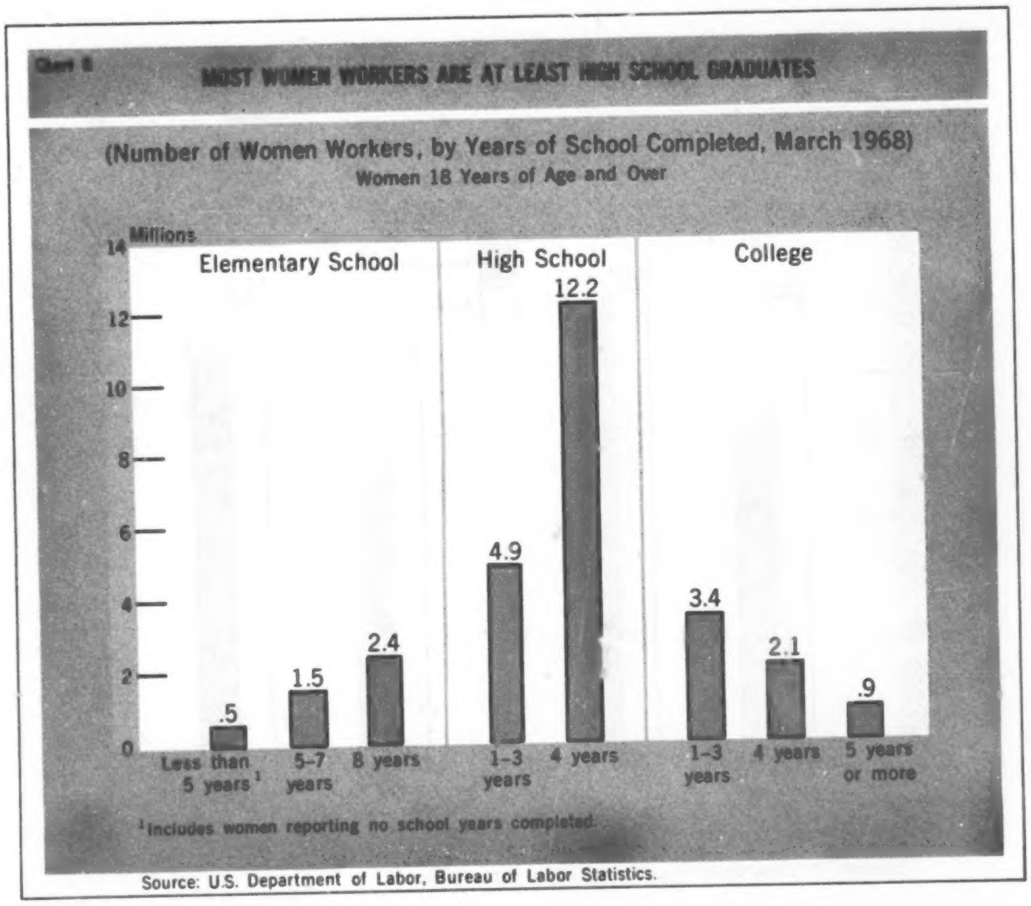


Chart 8

MOST WOMEN WORKERS ARE AT LEAST HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATES

(Number of Women Workers, by Years of School Completed, March 1968)
Women 18 Years of Age and Over

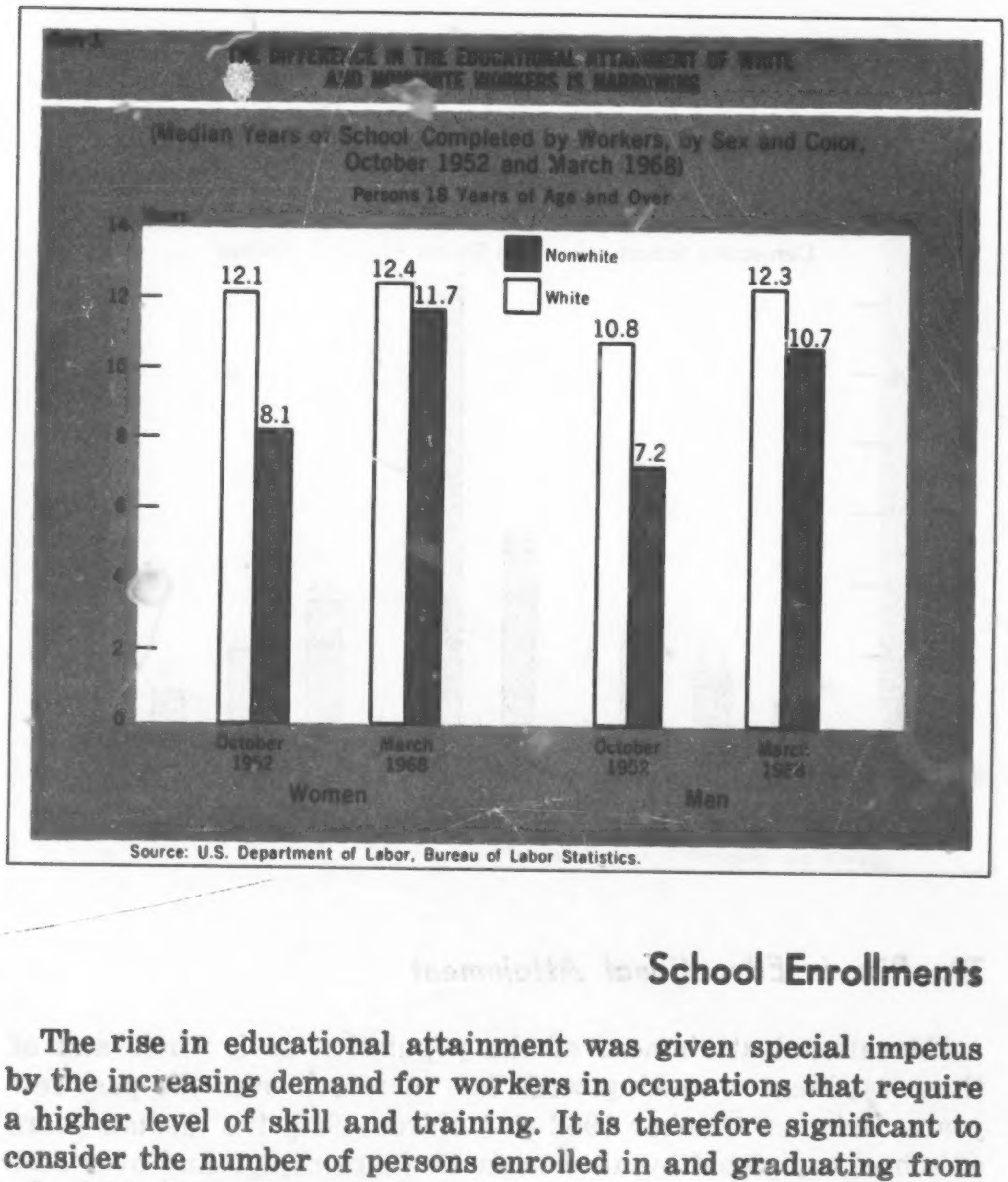
[1] Includes women reporting no school years completed.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

79. Rise in Educational Attainment

Educational attainment of the population as a whole and of those working or seeking work has increased over the past few years. Between October 1952 and March 1968, the median years of school completed by all women 18 years of age and over rose 1.2 years; by women workers, 0.4 years. Men made even better progress over the period. The median years of school completed by all men 18 years of age and over rose 2.1 years; by those in the labor force, 1.9 years.

Nonwhite workers made better progress in educational attainment between October 1952 and March 1968 than did white workers. The median years of school completed by nonwhite women workers rose 3.6 years compared with only 0.3 years for white women workers. The contrast in the rise in years of school completed by nonwhite and white men workers—3.5 and 1.5 years, respectively—was not as sharp.



Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

School Enrollments

The rise in educational attainment was given special impetus by the increasing demand for workers in occupations that require a higher level of skill and training. It is therefore significant to consider the number of persons enrolled in and graduating from school at the various levels.

80. Enrollments by Age

There were 26.3 million girls and women between 5 and 34 years of age enrolled in school in the fall of 1966 (table 85). This was 11.9 million more than in the fall of 1950. Even more significant was the rise—from 41 percent in 1950 to 56 percent in 1966—in the proportion of the female population 5 to 34 years of age who were attending school.

This increase, however, was not spread evenly among the various age groups. Nearly all girls of elementary school age—6 to 13 years—were enrolled in school in both years. In contrast, a considerably higher proportion of 5-year-old girls and of girls and women 14 to 34 years of age were enrolled in school in 1966 than in 1950. Among girls of the usual high school age—14 to 17 years—the proportion attending school rose from 82 to 93 percent. The proportion of girls 18 and 19 years of age enrolled in school increased by more than half, but the proportion for women 20 to 34 years of age increased almost fourfold.

Table 85.—School[1] Enrollments, October 1966, and Enrollment Rates, October 1950 and 1966, by Sex and Age

(Persons 5 to 34 years of age)

Age	Number of students enrolled in 1966		Female students as percent of population		Male students as percent of population	
	Girls and women	Boys and men	1966	1950	1966	1950
Total	26,337,000	28,733,000	56.1	41.0	64.1	47.5
5 years	1,539,000	1,548,000	74.1	51.9	71.5	51.6
6 years	1,998,000	2,071,000	97.6	97.9	97.7	96.1
7 to 13 years	13,756,000	14,139,000	99.5	98.7	99.2	98.7
14 to 17 years	6,523,000	6,770,000	92.9	82.2	94.4	84.3
18 and 19 years	1,335,000	1,841,000	37.7	24.3	57.8	35.2
20 and 21 years	602,000	931,000	20.9	[2] 4.6	41.4	[2] 14.2
22 to 24 years	278,000	736,000	6.6		21.3	
25 to 29 years	214,000	506,000	3.6	.4	9.6	5.9
30 to 34 years	92,000	191,000	1.7	.4	3.8	1.5

[1] Includes schools in regular school system; that is, public, parochial, and private schools offering a diploma or a degree.

[2] Not reported separately in 1950.

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census: Current Population Reports, P-20, No. 167.

Relatively fewer females 5 to 34 years of age than males of this age group were attending school in both 1950 and 1966. There was little difference in the proportions of the population enrolled in school at ages 5 through 17. But there was a wide disparity among those 18 years of age and over. In 1966 among 18- and 19-year-olds, about 3 out of 5 boys were enrolled in school as compared with only 2 out of 5 girls. Similarly, among those 20 and 21 years old, 41 percent of the men were attending school as compared with 21 percent of the women. Among those 22 to 24 years old, the proportion of men attending school (21 percent) was three times that of women (7 percent); while among those 25 to 34 years old, men were more than twice as likely as women to be enrolled in school.

There was also a divergence in the proportions of white and nonwhite girls 14 years of age and over who were attending school. In 1966 nearly all girls under 14 years of age, both white and nonwhite, were enrolled in school (table 86). Among those 14 to 17 years old, a slightly higher proportion of white than nonwhite girls were enrolled in school—93 and 90 percent, respectively. The gap was wider among those of college age. Thirty-nine percent of white girls 18 and 19 years of age were attending school as compared with 32 percent of nonwhite girls of these ages. And among women 20 and 21 years of age, white women were almost twice as likely as nonwhite women to be enrolled in school—22 and 12 percent, respectively.

Table 86.—SCHOOL[1] ENROLLMENTS AND ENROLLMENT RATES, BY COLOR, AGE, AND SEX, OCTOBER 1966

(Persons 5 to 34 years of age)

Age	Girls and women		Boys and men	
	Number	As percent of population	Number	As percent of population
	WHITE			
Total	22,698,000	55.9	25,017,000	64.1
5 years	1,322,000	75.5	1,328,000	72.4
6 years	1,688,000	97.5	1,768,000	97.8
7 to 13 years	11,758,000	99.5	12,155,000	99.2
14 to 17 years	5,650,000	93.3	5,887,000	94.7
18 and 19 years	1,196,000	38.6	1,649,000	59.0
20 and 21 years	560,000	22.3	881,000	44.9
22 to 24 years	245,000	6.6	701,000	23.0
25 to 29 years	190,000	3.9	480,000	10.3
30 to 34 years	80,000	1.7	168,000	3.8
	NONWHITE			
Total	3,639,000	57.4	3,716,000	63.8
5 years	217,000	66.2	220,000	66.5
6 years	310,000	98.4	303,000	96.8
7 to 13 years	1,998,000	99.5	1,984,000	99.2
14 to 17 years	873,000	90.3	883,000	92.9
18 and 19 years	139,000	31.9	192,000	49.1
20 and 21 years	42,000	11.6	50,000	17.4
22 to 24 years	33,000	6.5	35,000	8.6
25 to 29 years	15,000	2.1	26,000	4.4
30 to 34 years	12,000	1.7	23,000	4.2

[1] Includes schools in regular school system; that is, public, parochial, and private schools offering a diploma or a degree.

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census: Current Population Reports, P-20, No. 167.

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Among girls 14 to 17 years of age, the gap in the relative number of white and nonwhite girls in school was considerably narrower in 1966 than it had been in 1950, when 84 percent of white as compared with 72 percent of nonwhite girls were enrolled in school. Among 18- and 19-year-olds, however, nonwhite girls had lost the favorable position they had in 1950, when only 24 percent of white but 26 percent of nonwhite girls were enrolled in school.

Another interesting comparison is between the school enrollment of nonwhite girls and boys. Nearly all nonwhite youngsters 6 to 13 years of age were enrolled in school in 1966. But among those 14 years of age and over, nonwhite boys were more likely than nonwhite girls to attend school. The difference was most marked among those over 18 years of age. In 1966 nearly half (49 percent) of nonwhite boys 18 and 19 years old were enrolled in school as compared with less than a third (32 percent) of nonwhite girls. Among nonwhites 20 to 34 years of age, the proportions attending school were 7 percent for men and 4 percent for women.

81. *Enrollments by Type of School*

Of the 26.3 million girls and women enrolled in the fall of 1966, 17.4 million (66 percent) were in elementary school or kindergarten, 6.6 million (25 percent) were in high school, and the remaining 2.3 million (9 percent) were attending colleges, universities, or professional schools (table 87). The numbers of female and male students were about the same at the elementary and secondary school levels. But more than half again as many men as women were attending college.

These students were enrolled in schools in the regular school system; that is, any type of graded public, private, or parochial school offering courses leading to an elementary or high school diploma, or to a college, university, or professional degree. Students taking vocational courses for credit at any of these schools also are included.

An additional 634,000 girls and women (626,000 boys and men) 5 to 34 years of age were enrolled in special schools outside the regular school system. Most of these schools offer occupationally oriented courses not leading to a diploma or a degree. Among others, they include trade schools, business colleges, schools of nursing, schools of beauty culture, and technical schools. About 530,000, or 84 percent, of the girls and women enrolled in these schools in the fall of 1966 were 18 years of age or over. The comparable percentage for men was 79.

Table 87.—TYPES OF SCHOOL[1] ATTENDED BY STUDENTS 5 TO 34 YEARS OF AGE, BY SEX, OCTOBER 1966

Type of school	Female students		Male students	
	Number	Percent distribution	Number	Percent distribution
Total	26,337,000	100.0	28,733,000	100.0
Elementary school or kindergarten	17,425,000	66.2	18,197,000	63.3
High school	6,574,000	25.0	6,791,000	23.6
College	2,337,000	8.9	3,749,000	13.0

[1] Includes schools in regular school system; that is, public, parochial, and private schools offering a diploma or a degree.

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census: Current Population Reports, P–20, No. 167.

82. Secondary School Enrollments

Growth.—The number of young people enrolling in and graduating from high school is rising steadily. While part of this is due to the increase in the number of young people in the population, part is also due to certain social and economic factors. Most States have passed compulsory school attendance laws establishing a minimum school-leaving age—usually 16. The passage of child labor laws at both the State and Federal levels has raised the minimum age at which young people can be employed, thus influencing them to stay in school. Moreover, more young people are able to stay in school because of the rise in personal and family income. And young people are increasingly aware of the necessity of securing at least a high school diploma in order to qualify for most jobs. Many of the jobs requiring little or no training that formerly offered beginning employment for young men and women have disappeared.

As recently as the school year 1949–50, only 77 out of 100 persons 14 to 17 years of age were enrolled in high school.[2] In 1966–67 this ratio had grown to 94 out of 100. A similar growth occurred among high school graduates. In 1950 only 59 per 100 persons 17 years of age graduated from high school, but by 1967 this ratio had increased to 75 per 100.

There were 2,679,000 persons who graduated from high school in 1967. This was 754,000 more than the number who graduated in 1962 but only 7,000 more than had graduated in 1966. The number of young people in the population of high school graduating age remained fairly constant from 1966 to 1967, following a very substantial increase from 1962 to 1966. Girls have consistently outnumbered boys among high school graduates. However, the difference has narrowed, and currently the number of girls graduating from high school is only slightly more than the number of boys—1,348,000 and 1,331,000, respectively, in 1967.

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[2] U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education: "Digest of Educational Statistics, 1968." OE–10024–68.

Retention rates.—The increased holding power of the schools has been measured on the basis of retention rates. Of those youngsters who entered the fifth grade in the fall of 1942, 81 percent enrolled in the ninth grade in 1946 and 51 percent graduated from high school in June 1950.[3] The picture has brightened considerably since then. Of those boys and girls who entered the fifth grade in 1959, 97 percent enrolled in the ninth grade in 1963 and 72 percent graduated from high school in June 1967. Moreover, 40 percent of those who started fifth grade in 1959 enrolled in college in the fall of 1967. First-time college enrollees in the fall of 1950 had amounted to only 21 percent of those who had entered fifth grade in 1942.

School dropouts.—Despite this substantial progress, large numbers of both girls and boys still leave school before earning a high school diploma. In October 1967, 1.6 million of the 5 million girls 16 to 21 years of age who were not in school had dropped out before completing high school.[4] Dropping out of school was much more prevalent among nonwhite girls than among white girls—41 percent of the nonwhite but only 30 percent of the white girls not in school had not graduated from high school. Among boys of this age group who were not in school, 58 percent of the nonwhites and 39 percent of the whites had dropped out before graduating from high school.

In a 1963 survey of out-of-school youth aged 16 to 21 years, marriage or pregnancy was given as the principal reason for leaving school by about 2 out of 5 girls who had dropped out of elementary or high school and almost 1 out of 4 girls who had dropped out of college.[5] The second most important reason for leaving school at the elementary or high school level was lack f interest in school. Economic reasons were cited by about 1 out of 8 of both elementary or high school and college girls. Among boys 16 to 21 years, economic reasons were most often cited by dropouts at all school levels, but lack of interest in school was of almost equal importance in the case of elementary and high school dropouts.

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[3] Ibid.

[4] U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Special Labor Force Report No. 100.

[5] U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Special Labor Force Report No. 46.

Women and Higher Education

Each year more and more women enroll in and graduate from institutions of higher education. However, women still lag behind men in pursuing their education beyond the secondary school level, especially in the area of advanced degrees.

83. High School Graduates Entering College

Nearly 716,000 women and more than 936,000 men enrolled in college for the first time in October 1967 (table 88). These enrollments represented increases of 7 percent for women and 5 percent for men over those of October 1966. On the other hand, the numbers of girls and boys graduating from high school were virtually unchanged from June 1966 to June 1967.

From 1950 to 1965 first-time college enrollments of women in degree-credit programs more than tripled, while the number of girls graduating from high school little more than doubled. First-time college enrollments of men also increased proportionately more than high school graduations during the 15-year period.

These differences represent in part a rise in the proportions of young men and women who go on to college directly from high school. They also represent a substantial increase in the number of men and women who enter college after being out of school for a year or more.

Of all women students 14 to 34 years of age enrolled in the first year of college in October 1966, 30 percent had graduated from high school before 1966 and 9 percent had graduated in 1961 or earlier.[5a] Among men first-year students, 34 percent had graduated before 1966 and 15 percent in 1961 or earlier. Among students enrolled in 2-year colleges, the figures were even more striking—43 percent of the men and 36 percent of the women first-year students had graduated before 1966, and 21 percent of the men and 11 percent of the women had graduated in 1961 or earlier.

Some of these older students undoubtedly were men who had been in military service or women who had been busy with family responsibilities during the intervening years. And some may have been workers who found the need of further education in order to advance in their careers.

[5a] U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census: Current Population Reports, P-20, No. 183.

Table 88.—HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATES AND FIRST-TIME COLLEGE ENROLLEES, BY SEX, SELECTED YEARS, 1950–67

(Persons of all ages)

Year	Women		Men	
	High school graduates	First-time college enrollees	High school graduates	First-time college enrollees
1967	[1] 1,348,000	[2] 715,911	[1] 1,331,000	[2] 936,406
1966	1,346,000	[2] 670,648	1,326,000	[2] 894,916
1965	1,337,000	618,332	1,305,000	834,594
1964	1,169,000	528,340	1,121,000	706,466
1962	984,000	436,627	941,000	601,993
1960	966,000	387,049	898,000	542,774
1958	780,400	312,450	725,500	468,625
1956	735,300	277,064	679,500	446,114
1954	663,600	244,573	612,500	386,549
1952	627,300	213,206	569,200	323,673
1950	629,000	197,103	570,700	319,733

[1] Preliminary data.

[2] Data for first-time students for 1966 and 1967 are not strictly comparable with data for prior years, which include only first-time students in programs chiefly creditable toward a bachelor's degree.

Source: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education: "Digest of Educational Statistics, 1968." OE-10024-68 and "Opening Fall Enrollment, Higher Education, 1960, 1963, and 1967." OE-54007-60, 54003-63, and 54003-67.

84. College Enrollments

There were 2,805,130 women enrolled in institutions of higher education in the fall of 1967 (table 89). The number of women enrollees was 10 percent higher than in 1966 and 53 percent higher than in 1963 (the earliest date for which comparable figures were obtained by the Office of Education). Between 1963 and 1967 the number of women 18 to 21 years of age in the population increased by 22 percent. Women accounted for 40 percent of all students in colleges and universities in 1967 as compared with 38 percent in 1963.

Types of institutions attended by women.—There were 2,204,316 women enrolled in 4-year institutions in the fall of 1967. Of these, 952,531, or 43 percent, were enrolled in universities (institutions which have professional schools, offer advanced degrees as well as bachelor's degrees, and stress graduate instruction). Women enrolled in all other 4-year institutions numbered 1,251,785.

More than one-fifth of women college students were enrolled in 2-year institutions in the fall of 1967. A significant feature in the growth of higher education in recent years has been the rapid expansion in the number of students enrolled in 2-year institutions. In 1967 the total number of junior college enrollees was 79 percent greater than in 1963. Women enrollees in 2-year colleges increased by 92 percent during this period, as compared with a 46-percent increase in women enrollees at 4-year institutions.

Table 89.—COLLEGE ENROLLMENTS,[1] BY TYPE OF INSTITUTION AND ENROLLMENT CATEGORY, FALL 1967

	Total	Women		
		Number	Percent distribution	As percent of total
TYPE OF INSTITUTION				
Total	6,963,687	2,805,130	100.0	40.3
4-year institutions	5,445,608	2,204,316	78.6	40.5
Universities	2,609,097	952,531	34.0	36.4
All other institutions	2,826,511	1,251,785	44.6	44.3
2-year institutions	1,518,079	600,814	21.4	39.6
4-year institutions	5,445,608	2,204,316	100.0	--
Public	3,475,660	1,452,995	65.9	41.8
Private	1,969,948	751,321	34.1	38.1
2-year institutions	1,518,079	600,814	100.0	--
Public	1,374,670	536,135	89.2	39.0
Private	143,409	64,679	10.8	45.1
ENROLLMENT CATEGORY				
Total	6,963,687	2,805,130	100.0	40.3
Resident students	6,670,416	2,660,973	94.9	39.9
Undergraduate	5,770,451	2,394,115	85.3	41.5
Graduate	899,965	266,858	9.5	29.7
Extension students	293,271	144,157	5.1	49.2

[1] Includes students enrolled in degree-credit programs and those enrolled in programs not chiefly creditable toward a degree.

Source: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education: "Opening Fall Enrollment, Higher Education, 1967." OE-54003-67.

Two-year institutions include junior colleges, technical institutes, and semiprofessional schools that offer programs extending at least 2 years but less than 4 years beyond high school. These institutions do not grant bachelor's degrees. Junior colleges (including the 2-year branches of public universities) offer programs creditable toward a bachelor's degree by transfer to a 4-year institution. In addition, many junior colleges offer terminal programs either in liberal arts or in technical-vocational fields. Technical, vocational, and semiprofessional programs are not generally creditable toward a baccalaureate degree, but usually lead to an associate degree or similar certificate.

The growth in junior colleges can be attributed in part to the increasing enrollment pressures on all institutions of higher education. But 2-year colleges also have a distinct purpose and role of their own. Community colleges bring higher education within financial and commuting reach of many students who might not otherwise be able to attend college. Two-year colleges also serve students who seek courses beyond the high school level which will prepare them for immediate employment. In addition, they frequently offer educational facilities to adults who wish to improve or refresh their skills, develop new interests, or expand their general education.

About 70 percent of all women enrolled in institutions of higher education in the fall of 1967 attended publicly sponsored colleges and universities. The remainder were in privately controlled schools. Women enrolled in 2-year institutions were more likely than those enrolled in 4-year institutions to be attending publicly sponsored schools—89 and 66 percent, respectively.

Freshmen students.—More than 2.3 million, or one-third, of all students enrolled in institutions of higher education in the fall of 1967 were freshmen.[6] Women students totaled 989,963, or 43 percent of the freshman class. Of these, 715,911 women were first-time enrollees—students who had never previously been enrolled at any institution of higher education. The remaining 274,052 women had previously taken college courses but had not earned enough credits to be classified as sophomores. There was no significant difference between the proportions of men and women freshmen students who were first-time enrollees. The proportion of first-time enrollees among freshmen women was slightly lower in 2-year institutions than in 4-year institutions—64 and 78 percent, respectively.

Full-time and part-time students.—Thirty-three percent of the women enrolled in institutions of higher education in the fall of 1967 were resident students attending school only part time or extension students. A slightly smaller proportion of men (29 percent) were on part-time schedules. There was considerable difference in part-time or extension enrollment of women between the 2- and 4-year institutions—50 and 28 percent, respectively. Many married women with family responsibilities attend community junior colleges on a part-time schedule.

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[6] U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education: "Opening Fall Enrollment, Higher Education, 1967." OE-54003-67.

Graduate students.—Graduate students accounted for 13 percent of the 6,670,416 resident students enrolled in the fall of 1967 and numbered 899,965. Of these, 266,858, or 30 percent, were women. Thus about 1 out of every 10 women and almost 1 out of every 6 men resident students were studying at the postbaccalaureate level. The proportion of part-time students at the graduate level was 50 percent as compared with 24 percent at the undergraduate level. Data on the part-time status of graduate resident students are not available by sex.

College enrollment and marriage.—In October 1966 about 340,000, or 15 percent, of the women college students under 35 years of age were married (husband present).[7] This compares with 147,000 married women students, or 13 percent, in 1959. However, most of these married women students were 22 years of age and over—75 percent in 1966 and 79 percent in 1959 (the earliest date for which comparable figures are available).

Married women students are more likely to be enrolled in college on a part-time than a full-time basis. Thus 60 percent were attending school only part time in 1966. A larger proportion of married women students 22 years of age and over (72 percent) than of those younger (26 percent) were enrolled part time.

The percentage of men college students who are married is significantly higher than that of women. In October 1966, 24 percent of all men under 35 years of age who were enrolled in college were married (wife present). Married men students, like married women students, are likely to be relatively older and to attend school part time. Eighty-six percent of the married men students in October 1966 were 22 years of age and over, and about three-fifths of these men were attending school part time. Only one-fifth of those under 22 years of age were part-time students.

85. Women Earning Degrees

The number of degrees earned by women has risen significantly in recent years and reached a record high of 296,732 in the school year 1966–67. This was an increase of more than 22,500 over the number earned in 1965–66 and more than 132,750 over the number conferred by institutions of higher education in 1959–60. It was a more than threefold increase over the number earned in 1939–40.

Number and types of degrees.—Women's degrees in 1967 included 238,133 bachelor's degrees (80.3 percent), 1,429 first professional degrees (0.5 percent), 54,713 master's degrees (18.4 percent), and 2,457 doctor's degrees (0.8 percent).

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[7] U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census: Current Population Reports, P–20, No. 167.

Because of changes in definitions by the Office of Education, it is not possible to compare 1966 or 1967 data on bachelor's, first professional, or master's degrees with data for prior years. As previously defined, bachelor's degrees were those which required 4 but less than 5 years of college education. In 1966 bachelor's degrees were redefined to include those requiring 4 or 5 years of college. First professional degrees (first reported separately from bachelor's degrees in 1961) previously included professional degrees requiring 5 years or more of higher education. In 1966 they were redefined to include only professional degrees requiring 6 years or more of higher education.[8] In addition, certain degrees, such as master of library science and master of social work, which were classified as first professional degrees from 1961 to 1965, were reclassified as master's degrees in 1966.

Comparison of degrees earned by women and men.—In 1967 women earned about the same proportion (38 percent) of all degrees conferred as in 1965. The proportions of all conferred degrees earned by women at three degree levels in selected years from 1900 to 1967 follow:

Degree level	*Percent earned by women in—*						
	1967	*1966*	*1965*	*1960*	*1950*	*1930*	*1900*
Total	38.4	38.4	38.5	34.2	24.4	39.5	18.9
Bachelor's or first professional	[1] 40.3	[1] 40.4	40.7	35.3	23.9	39.9	19.1
Master's	[1] 34.7	[1] 33.8	32.1	31.6	29.2	40.4	19.1
Doctor's	11.9	11.6	10.8	10.5	9.7	15.4	6.0

[1] Data not comparable with prior years. See text explanation.

Since data for 1966 and 1967 are not comparable with those for previous years at the first and second degree levels, comparisons at these levels will be made between 1965 and previous years. In 1965 women earned about 41 percent of bachelor's and first professional degrees as compared with 35 percent in 1960. Back at the turn of the century, women earned only 19 percent of all bachelor's and first professional degrees. This proportion rose to 40 percent in 1930, and reached a peak of 41 percent in 1940. Following World War II the percent dropped to a low of 24 in 1950, when the college graduating classes included large numbers of returning veterans.

Although the number of women taking advanced degrees has increased, women earn only a small proportion of all advanced degrees conferred. Thus in 1965 women earned 32 percent of all master's or second-level degrees. This was considerably below the peak of 40 percent registered in 1930. However, it was above the 19 percent they earned in 1900 and a more recent low of 29 percent they earned in 1950.

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[8] First professional degrees now include such degrees as M.D., D.D.S., LL.B., and B.D.

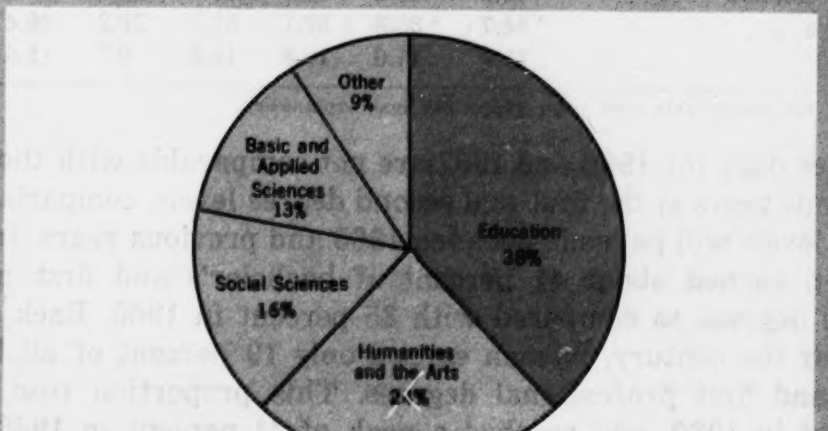
Women earned a higher proportion of all doctor's degrees in 1967 than in 1965—12 percent as compared with 11 percent. This was almost twice as high a proportion as they earned in 1900 but still below the 15 percent they earned in 1930. The number of doctor's degrees earned by women increased from 23 in 1900 to 353 in 1930 and to 2,457 in 1967.

Fields of study in which women earned degrees.—Since more and more women are enrolling in and graduating from institutions of higher education, it is of interest to examine the fields of study in which they earn degrees. Although women earn degrees in a broad and varied range of subjects, most of the degrees received by women are concentrated in a relatively limited number of fields of study. The field of education alone accounted for 38 percent of bachelor's degrees earned by women in 1967 (chart T).

Chart T

2 OUT OF 5 WOMEN COLLEGE GRADUATES MAJOR IN EDUCATION

(Bachelor's Degrees Conferred on Women, by Field of Study, 1966-67)



Source: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education.

Education also accounted for 51 percent of master's and 29 percent of doctor's degrees earned by women in 1967—not surprising since teaching is the largest single professional occupation for women. The humanities and the arts were the next most popular disciplines, accounting for 24 percent of bachelor's, 18 percent of master's, and 21 percent of doctor's degrees.

Bachelor's degrees.—Within the leading fields of education and the humanities, the most popular single subjects in which women earned bachelor's degrees in 1967 were elementary education (58,016 degrees), English and journalism (29,206), fine and applied arts (12,569), and foreign languages and literature (12,184) (table 90). Many women also earned degrees in the social sciences, especially history (11,064) and sociology (10,588); in psychology (7,806); and in basic and applied sciences, especially nursing (8,252), biological sciences (8,047), and mathematical subjects (7,310).

Table 90.—EARNED BACHELOR'S DEGREES [1] CONFERRED ON WOMEN, BY SELECTED FIELDS OF STUDY, 1966–67

Field of study	Total	Women		
		Number	Percent distribution	As percent of all bachelor's degrees conferred
Total	562,369	238,133	100.0	42.3
Education	120,874	90,562	38.0	74.9
Art education	3,928	2,829	1.2	72.0
Business and commercial education	6,315	4,523	1.9	71.6
Early childhood, nursery, and kindergarten education	4,023	3,992	1.7	99.2
Education of exceptional children and the handicapped	1,999	1,698	.7	84.9
Elementary education	64,595	58,016	24.4	89.8
Home economics education	4,582	4,567	1.9	99.7
Music education	5,593	3,203	1.3	57.3
Physical education	13,473	4,946	2.1	36.7
Secondary education	2,852	1,532	.6	53.7
Speech and hearing education	2,378	2,004	.8	84.3
Other	11,136	3,252	1.4	29.2
Humanities and the arts	98,368	56,883	23.9	57.8
English, journalism	45,949	29,206	12.3	63.6
Fine and applied arts	21,553	12,569	5.3	58.3

See footnote at end of table.

Table 90.—EARNED BACHELOR'S DEGREES [1] CONFERRED ON WOMEN, BY SELECTED FIELDS OF STUDY, 1966–67—Continued

Field of study	Total	Women		
		Number	Percent distribution	As percent of all bachelor's degrees conferred
Foreign languages, literature	17,025	12,184	5.1	71.6
Religion, philosophy	9,509	2,134	.9	22.4
Other	4,332	790	.3	18.2
Psychology	19,496	7,806	3.3	40.0
Social sciences	106,919	37,656	15.8	35.2
Social sciences	104,756	37,219	15.6	35.5
Anthropology	1,825	971	.4	53.2
Economics	13,058	1,331	.6	10.2
History	31,793	11,064	4.6	34.8
Political science, government	17,733	3,920	1.6	22.1
Social sciences (general)	14,744	6,487	2.7	44.0
Social work, administration, welfare	1,881	1,462	.6	77.7
Sociology	17,751	10,588	4.4	59.6
Other	5,971	1,396	.6	23.4
Geography	2,163	437	.2	20.2
Basic and applied sciences	130,974	31,301	13.1	23.9
Biological sciences	28,950	8,047	3.4	27.8
Health professions	16,123	12,437	5.2	77.1
Medical technology	2,261	2,019	.8	89.3
Nursing, public health nursing	8,334	8,252	3.5	99.0
Therapy (occupational and physical)	1,306	1,180	.5	90.4
Other health professions	4,222	986	.4	23.4
Mathematical subjects	21,308	7,310	3.1	34.3
Physical sciences	17,794	2,402	1.0	13.5
Other	46,799	1,105	.5	2.4
Other professional fields	85,738	13,925	5.8	16.2
Business and commerce	69,687	5,992	2.5	8.6
Home economics	6,335	6,166	2.6	97.3
Library science	701	647	.3	92.3
Other	9,015	1,120	.5	12.4

[1] Includes degrees requiring 4 or 5 years of education.

Source: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education: "Earned Degrees, 1966–67." OE–54013–67.

Another indication of the popularity of certain subjects among women is the proportion of all degrees in them earned by women.

In 1967 almost all bachelor's degrees in home economics education; early childhood, nursery, and kindergarten education; nursing; and home economics were conferred on women. Women also earned 9 out of 10 bachelor's degrees in library science, occupational and physical therapy, elementary education, and medical technology; 8 out of 10 in education of exceptional children and the handicapped and in speech and hearing education; 7 out of 10 in social work, art education, business and commercial education, and foreign languages and literature; and 6 out of 10 in English and journalism and in sociology. On the other hand, women earned only 1 out of 10 bachelor's degrees in economics and less than 1 out of 10 in business and commerce.

First professional degrees.—Because of the change in definition (see Number and types of degrees, above), data on first professional degrees earned in 1966 and 1967 are not comparable with 1965 data, except for a few specific degrees. In 1967 women earned 1,429 first professional degrees (table 91). Of these, 1,144 were in the fields of medicine and law (M.D., J.D., or LL.B.)—

Table 91.—EARNED FIRST PROFESSIONAL DEGREES[1] CONFERRED ON WOMEN, BY SELECTED FIELDS OF STUDY, 1966–67

Field of study	Total	Women		
		Number	Percent distribution	As percent of all first professional degrees conferred
Total	32,493	1,429	100.0	4.4
Humanities and the arts	4,228	124	8.7	2.9
Religion and philosophy	4,079	109	7.6	2.7
Other	149	15	1.0	10.1
Basic and applied sciences	13,399	734	51.4	5.5
Health professions	13,330	730	51.1	5.5
Medicine (M.D. only)	7,767	574	40.2	7.4
Pharmacy	202	41	2.9	20.3
Veterinary medicine (D.V.M. only)	942	52	3.6	5.5
Other health professions	4,419	63	4.4	1.4
Other	69	4	.3	5.8
Other professional fields[2]	14,866	571	40.0	3.8
Law	14,846	570	39.9	3.8

[1] Includes degrees requiring at least 6 years of education.
[2] Includes persons earning degrees in fields not shown separately.

Source: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education: "Earned Degrees, 1966–67." OE–54013–67.

an increase of 12 percent over the number earned by women in these two fields in 1966 (medicine, 516; law, 508) and 31 percent over the number earned in 1965.

Only 4.4 percent of all first professional degrees conferred in 1967 were earned by women. A slightly larger share of such degrees was earned by women in certain health professions—pharmacy (20 percent), medicine (7 percent), and veterinary medicine (6 percent); but women's share of degrees in other health professions, including dentistry and certain medical specialties, was only 1 percent. Women earned only 4 percent of all law degrees.

Master's degrees.—Master's degrees earned by women in 1967 were more concentrated in the field of education than were bachelor's degrees—51 and 38 percent, respectively. Women who have majored in another field of study at the undergraduate level often obtain their master's degree in education in order to qualify for teaching positions in secondary schools or to qualify for higher rates of pay. There was less interest in 1967 at the master's level than at the undergraduate level in the humanities (18 percent compared with 24 percent), in social sciences (11 and 16 percent), and in the basic and applied sciences (9 and 13 percent).

The most popular individual subjects for women at the master's degree level, as at the undergraduate level, were elementary education (8,055) and English and journalism (4,170); but many women earned master's degrees in library science (3,567), counseling and guidance (3,276), social work (2,533), fine and applied arts (2,476), and foreign languages and literature (2,379) (table 92).

Even though women earned only 35 percent of all master's degrees conferred in 1967, they still predominated in the same individual educational subjects as at the undergraduate level and in nursing and home economics. They also earned 79 percent of the degrees in library science and 60 percent of the degrees in social work. However, they earned only 9 and 10 percent of the degrees in economics and in physical sciences, respectively; less than 3 percent of the degrees in business and commerce; and 2 percent in other basic and applied sciences (which includes engineering).

Doctor's degrees.—The specialization by women in the field of education is markedly reduced at the doctorate level. Of all doctor's degrees earned by women in 1967, 29 percent were in the field of education, as compared with 25 percent in basic and applied sciences and 21 percent in the humanities and the arts

Table 92.—EARNED MASTER'S DEGREES CONFERRED ON WOMEN, BY SELECTED FIELDS OF STUDY, 1966–67

Field of study	Total	Women		
		Number	Percent distribution	As percent of all master's degrees conferred
Total	157,892	54,713	100.0	34.7
Education	55,861	27,918	51.0	50.0
Art education	721	404	.7	56.0
Business and commercial education	1,224	707	1.3	57.8
Counseling, guidance	7,001	3,276	6.0	46.8
Curriculum and instruction	1,117	699	1.3	62.6
Early childhood, nursery, and kindergarten education	395	389	.7	98.5
Educational administration, supervision, or finance	7,230	1,602	2.9	22.2
Educational psychology	634	280	.5	44.2
Education of exceptional children and the handicapped	2,295	1,584	2.9	69.0
Elementary education	10,040	8,055	14.7	80.2
Home economics education	509	504	.9	99.0
Music education	1,509	578	1.1	38.3
Physical education	3,052	852	1.6	27.9
Secondary education	4,305	1,809	3.3	42.0
Speech and hearing education	887	675	1.2	76.1
Other	14,942	6,504	11.9	43.5
Humanities and the arts	22,051	9,836	18.0	44.6
English, journalism	7,984	4,170	7.6	52.2
Fine and applied arts	5,812	2,476	4.5	42.6
Foreign languages, literature	4,255	2,379	4.3	55.9
Religion, philosophy	2,876	600	1.1	20.9
Other	1,124	211	.4	18.8
Psychology	3,138	1,062	1.9	33.8
Social sciences	19,173	5,851	10.7	30.5
Social sciences	18,710	5,784	10.6	30.9
Anthropology	357	117	.2	32.8
Area and regional studies	419	125	.2	29.8
Economics	1,778	168	.3	9.4
History	4,621	1,317	2.4	28.5
Political science, government	1,775	387	.7	21.8
Social sciences (general)	1,688	462	.8	27.4

Table 92.—EARNED MASTER'S DEGREES CONFERRED ON WOMEN, BY SELECTED FIELDS OF STUDY, 1966–67—Continued

Field of study	Total	Women		
		Number	Percent distribution	As percent of all master's degrees conferred
Social work, administration, welfare	4,220	2,533	4.6	60.0
Sociology	1,193	356	.7	29.8
Other	2,659	319	.6	12.0
Geography	463	67	.1	14.5
Basic and applied sciences	35,950	5,121	9.4	14.2
Biological sciences	5,003	1,282	2.3	25.6
Health professions	3,455	1,663	3.0	48.1
Nursing, public health nursing	1,145	1,120	2.0	97.8
Public health	865	294	.5	34.0
Other health professions	1,445	249	.5	17.2
Mathematical subjects	5,284	1,284	2.3	24.3
Physical sciences	5,412	553	1.0	10.2
Other	16,796	339	.6	2.0
Other professional fields	21,719	4,925	9.0	22.7
Business and commerce	14,894	406	.7	2.7
Home economics	850	804	1.5	94.6
Library science	4,489	3,567	6.5	79.5
Other	1,486	148	.3	10.0

Source: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education: "Earned Degrees, 1966–67." OE–54013–67

(table 93). In the latter two fields the largest single subjects were biological sciences and English and journalism. Psychology accounted for less than 10 percent of doctor's degrees earned by women; social sciences, 13 percent.

Although women earned only 12 percent of all doctor's degrees conferred in 1967, their share in certain fields was considerably larger—20 percent in education and in the humanities and the arts and 19 percent in psychology. On the other hand, half of all doctoral degrees conferred in 1967 were in the basic and applied sciences, where women's share was only 6 percent.

In several individual subjects women's share of doctoral degrees was substantially higher in 1967 than in 1956 (the earliest date for which comparable figures are available by field of study). For example, increases were from 20 to 28 percent in foreign languages and literature, from 15 to 23 percent in English and journalism, and from 14 to 19 percent in psychology. Women's share of doctoral degrees in biological sciences rose only moderately from 11 percent in 1956 to 15 percent in 1967, but the actual number of degrees earned by women in this field increased by almost one-half in just 2 years, from 1965 to 1967.

Table 93.—EARNED DOCTOR'S DEGREES CONFERRED ON WOMEN, BY SELECTED FIELDS OF STUDY, 1966–67

Field of study	Total	Women		
		Number	Percent distribution	As percent of all doctor's degrees conferred
Total	20,621	2,457	100.0	11.9
Education	3,529	722	29.4	20.5
Humanities and the arts	2,543	511	20.8	20.1
English and journalism	871	203	8.3	23.3
Fine and applied arts	504	93	3.8	18.5
Foreign languages, literature	578	163	6.6	28.2
Other	590	52	2.1	8.8
Psychology	1,231	232	9.4	18.8
Social sciences	2,586	310	12.6	12.0
Basic and applied sciences	10,096	605	24.6	6.0
Biological sciences	2,256	342	13.9	15.2
Mathematical subjects	832	59	2.4	7.1
Physical sciences	3,462	162	6.6	4.7
Other	3,546	42	1.7	1.2
Other professional fields	636	77	3.1	12.1

Source: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education: "Earned Degrees, 1966-67." OE-54013-67.

86. Continuing Education Programs for Women

Many mature women wish to return to school after their family responsibilities lessen, in order to prepare themselves for entry or reentry into the world of work or for a serious volunteer commitment. Some of these women seek to start or continue a college education which had been precluded or interrupted by marriage and family. For others the passage of years and volunteer or family experiences have brought changing occupational interests. Others want to update and refresh their knowledge or to work toward advanced degrees in their previous professional fields.

Educational institutions are paying increasing attention to the special needs of these mature women. Programs and practices designed for students in their late teens or early twenties have proved inadequate or frustrating in many ways to women in their thirties or over. Many of these older women are married and have family responsibilities; many have been out of school for 10 or 20 years. They need less rigid interpretation of entrance requirements, such as substituting equivalency tests for credits earned too long ago to be considered eligible. They need flexible scheduling, often on a part-time basis and at hours convenient for those with young children at home. They need special counseling services on both educational and occupational opportunities. They may also need financial aid, now seldom available to those on part-time schedules. Finally, they need changes in course material and teaching methods designed for young people and frequently inappropriate for mature women with broader backgrounds of life experience, probably including periods of employment or volunteer work.

Continuing education programs to meet these needs have been developed by colleges and universities, 2-year community colleges, and a few public secondary school systems. The programs vary with each institution, but certain general features characterize various types of programs.[9]

One approach has been the establishment of a center for the continuing education of women within the college or university in order to make the regular resources of the institution more efficiently and effectively useful to adult women. Individual counseling, information, and referral services may be provided on both educational and employment opportunities. Job placement services, nursery facilities, and scholarship aid also may be included.

A general orientation workshop or course has been another type of response to the special needs of mature women. Such orientation courses usually offer a comprehensive survey of current information on career, educational, and volunteer opportunities. Counseling and guidance on both a group and an individual basis, aptitude testing, and placement assistance are often included.

Another approach has been the establishment of special programs for adult women to pursue either undergraduate or graduate education on a part-time basis. Such programs may include pre-admission counseling and refresher courses.

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[9] For more detailed information on continuing education programs and services, see "Continuing Education Programs and Services for Women." Pamphlet 10. Women's Bureau, Wage and Labor Standards Administration, U.S. Department of Labor. 1968.

Special degree programs that go beyond the usual part-time arrangements in meeting the flexible time needs of mature women also have been developed. Such programs may combine short term residence requirements or special summer seminars with provision for independent or correspondence study. Other features sometimes included are credit for life experience, taped lectures, and programed learning.

87. Financial Assistance for College Students

As more and more high school graduates seek education beyond the secondary level and as college costs continue to rise, financial aid has become an increasingly important problem to college students. Institutions of higher education and many private groups and organizations have long offered financial assistance to able students. To help meet society's need for educated men and women and trained manpower, Congress has, in recent years, authorized a number of federally assisted aid programs in the form of grants, loans, and employment opportunities. These programs are available to students seeking postsecondary training at participating colleges, universities, and vocational, business, or technical schools. Students who want details about any of these programs should inquire at the school to which they are applying or in which they are enrolled.

Educational opportunity grants.—These grants are available to undergraduate students with exceptional financial need. To be eligible, students must be enrolled or accepted for enrollment on a full-time basis.

Grants are made to eligible students for each of 4 years of undergraduate study, in amounts ranging from $200 to $1,000 an academic year. Institutions of higher education participating in the program select the recipients and determine the amount each student needs, in accordance with criteria established by the Office of Education. Matching awards, in amounts at least equal to the Federal grants, must be provided to grant recipients by the participating institutions or by other sources—so that the students receive packages of financial assistance designed for individual needs and circumstances.

National defense student loans.—Students who have been accepted for enrollment or are already in attendance on at least a half-time basis at participating colleges, universities, or vocational, business, or technical schools and who need financial help for educational expenses are eligible for these long term, low-interest loans.

Undergraduate students may borrow up to $1,000 each academic year, to a total of $4,000. Graduate students may borrow as much as $2,500 a year, to a maximum of $10,000. The repayment period and the interest (3 percent a year) do not begin until 9 months after students end their studies. Repayment of principal may be extended over a 10-year period. Repayment may be deferred up to a total of 3 years while borrowers are serving in the Armed Forces, with the Peace Corps, or as Volunteers in Service to America (VISTA).

If borrowers become full-time teachers in public or other nonprofit elementary or secondary schools or in institutions of higher education, up to 50 percent of the loans may be forgiven at the rate of 10 percent for each year of teaching service. Student borrowers who teach handicapped children or who choose to teach in specifically designated schools located in primarily low income areas may cancel the full amount of their loans at the rate of 15 percent a year.

Guaranteed loans.—Students enrolled or accepted for enrollment in approved colleges, universities, or vocational, technical, trade, or business schools may obtain low-cost insured loans from private commercial lenders. Such lenders may be banks, credit unions, savings and loan associations, insurance companies, or colleges that elect to become lenders under the program. A State agency or private nonprofit agency or, in some cases, the Federal Government guarantees the loans. The Federal Government pays a portion of the interest on behalf of eligible students. Depending upon the State program, students apply directly to a bank or other lending agency, to the college, or to the State loan guarantee agency.

Under this program students may borrow as much as $1,500 a year, to a maximum of $7,500. In most States half-time students are eligible, although some States require full-time enrollment. The maximum interest rate on these loans is 7 percent a year. However, for students with adjusted family incomes of under $15,000 a year, the Federal Government pays the entire interest charge while the students are in school and until the beginning of the repayment period.

The repayment period does not begin until 9 to 12 months after students have completed their education or have left school. Repayment may be deferred while the students serve in the Peace Corps, in VISTA, or in the Armed Forces.

Work-study assistance.—This is a program of part-time employment for students who need a job to help to pay for education expenses. To be eligible, students must be enrolled and be in good standing or be accepted for enrollment on a full-time basis at participating colleges or universities or in postsecondary programs in vocational schools. The students' eligibility depends upon financial need, with preference given to applicants from low-income families.

The work may be for the schools themselves or for public or private nonprofit organizations contracting with the institutions. The Federal Government reimburses participating institutions for 80 percent of the students' wages. The participating institutions select the students to be employed, determine the jobs to be performed, handle the payroll, and administer the program.

Students may work an average of 15 hours weekly while attending classes and up to 40 hours a week during vacations or other periods when classes are not in session. In general, the basic pay rate is at least the current minimum wage; salaries of up to $3.50 an hour may be paid for highly specialized work.

Cooperative education.—A new form of student educational assistance was provided by the Higher Education Act of 1968, which authorized Federal grants to colleges to help them establish programs of alternate full-time academic study and full-time public or private employment. The aim of the cooperative education program is twofold: to offer students the opportunity to earn needed funds through periods of full-time work, and to give them work experience related to their academic or occupational objectives.

Social security benefits for students.—Sons and daughters of retired or deceased workers are eligible for social security benefits up to age 22 if they are unmarried, full-time students. To be eligible, the student must be enrolled in an accredited school for a course of study which will take at least 3 months and must carry a subject load sufficient to complete the course in the time normally required by a day student. Payment of these benefits is not automatic. Students who believe they are eligible and who are not receiving these benefits should inquire at a local social security office.

Aid for special fields of study.—A number of federally assisted fellowships and scholarship programs are available to students in certain specialized fields of study. These include teaching, counseling and guidance, library work, nursing and other health fields, social work, and vocational rehabilitation. Information on the types of programs offered may be obtained from the U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.

Aid to veterans.—Benefits for additional training or education are available to men and women who have served in the Armed Forces since January 31, 1955. Eligible veterans are those who have served 181 days on active duty or less than 181 days if duty was terminated because of service-connected disability.

Benefits are paid on the basis of 1 month of benefits for post-secondary-school education for each month of active duty to a maximum of 36 months. Benefits may also be paid for high school education, and these benefits are not counted against the period for which benefits may be paid for schooling above the secondary level. The amount of benefits varies with the number of dependents and whether the schooling is on a full-time or a part-time basis.

Training or education may be taken in approved courses at high schools, public or private colleges, or vocational, business, or correspondence schools. Further information may be obtained from school veterans' counselors or from the nearest office of the Veterans Administration.

Aid to children of veterans.—Educational benefits are provided for children of veterans who died or were permanently and totally disabled as a result of service in the Armed Forces. Generally, students who are at least 18 years of age (or high school graduates) but not more than 25 years of age are eligible.

Benefits may be paid for a maximum 36 months or the equivalent of 36 months for students enrolled part time. The monthly payment for full-time training or education is $130.

Education or training may be taken in approved colleges, vocational or business schools, or other educational institutions. Further information may be obtained from school veterans' counselors or from the nearest office of the Veterans Administration.

Education and Employment

88. Educational Attainment and Labor Force Participation

There is a direct relationship between the educational attainment of women and their labor force participation. The more education a woman has received, the greater the likelihood that she will be engaged in paid employment. A high school diploma is a prerequisite for many jobs today, and there is an increasing demand for workers with education above the high school level. A shortage of personnel with the necessary technical and professional training to fill the complex requirements of many positions in this era of technological change is acute and is expected to continue. Moreover, women who have completed 4 years of college or more are motivated to seek employment outside the home because of the higher earnings available to them and because of a desire to use the skills they have acquired through higher education.

In March 1968, 71 percent of the women 18 years of age and over who had completed 5 years of college or more and 54 percent of those who had earned a bachelor's degree only were in the labor force (chart U). The percentage dropped to 48 percent among those who were high school graduates and to 31 percent among those who did not go beyond the eighth grade. The chances of being employed were even slimmer for women who had less than 5 years of formal education.

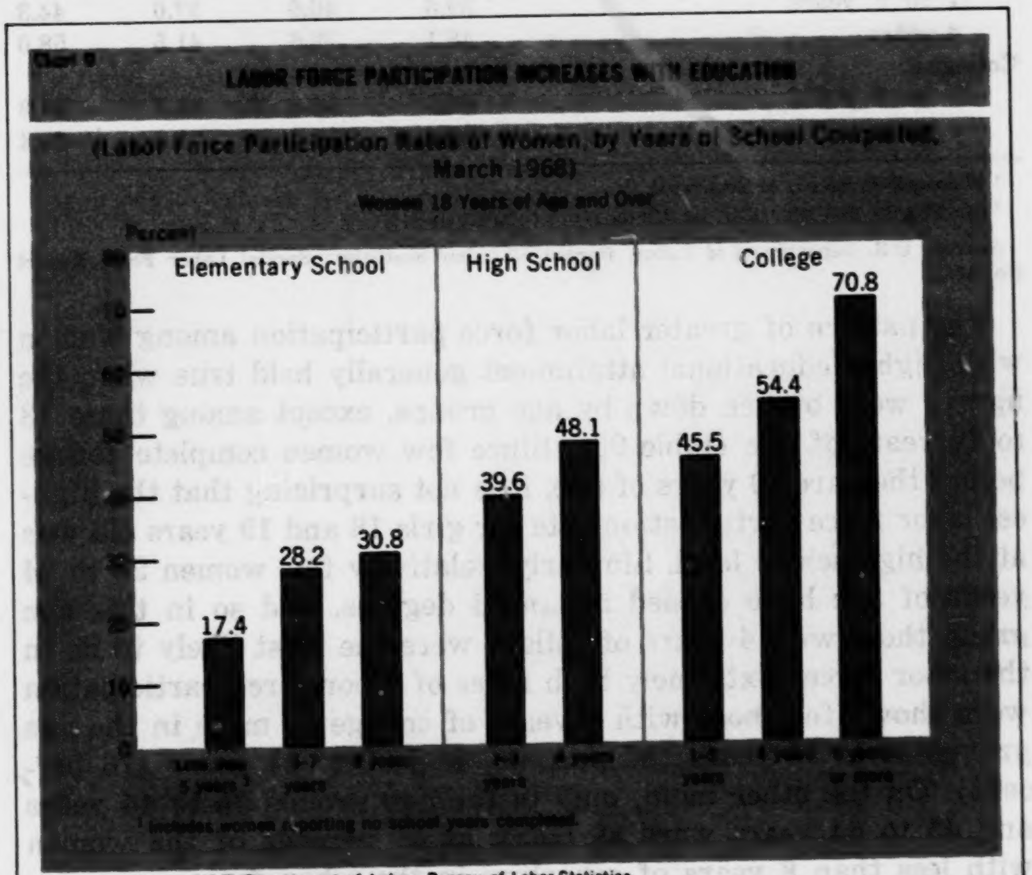


Chart U

LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION INCREASES WITH EDUCATION

(Labor Force Participation Rates of Women, by Years of School Completed, March 1968)

Women 18 Years of Age and Over

¹ Includes women reporting no school years completed.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics

The relationship between educational attainment and labor force participation is almost as strong among married women (husband present) as it is among single women and women who are widowed, divorced, or separated. Thus the highest labor force participation rate among women in each marital group in March 1968 was for those with 4 years of college or more, and the lowest rate was among women with less than 8 years of schooling (table 94).

Table 94.—LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATES OF WOMEN, BY EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT AND MARITAL STATUS, MARCH 1968

(Women 18 years of age and over)

Years of school completed	Total	Marital status		
		Single	Married (husband present)	Other [1]
Total	42.0	62.3	38.4	40.6
Elementary school:				
Less than 8 years [2]	24.4	36.2	25.1	21.6
8 years	30.8	48.5	30.9	27.8
High school:				
1 to 3 years	39.6	46.6	37.0	44.3
4 years	48.1	72.6	41.5	58.0
College:				
1 to 3 years	45.5	54.4	39.7	54.9
4 years or more	58.4	81.8	51.3	61.4

[1] Widowed, divorced, or separated.

[2] Includes women reporting no school years completed.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Special Labor Force Report No. 103.

The pattern of greater labor force participation among women with higher educational attainment generally held true when the figures were broken down by age groups, except among those 18 to 24 years of age (table 95). Since few women complete college before they are 20 years of age, it is not surprising that the highest labor force participation rate for girls 18 and 19 years old was at the high school level. Similarly, relatively few women 20 to 24 years of age have earned advanced degrees, and so in this age group those with 4 years of college were the most likely to be in the labor force. Extremely high rates of labor force participation were shown for those with 5 years of college or more in the age groups 45 to 54 years (86 percent) and 55 to 64 years (76 percent). On the other hand, only in the age groups 35 to 44 years and 45 to 54 years were as many as 41 percent of the women with less than 8 years of schooling in the labor force.

Among nonwhite women labor force participation in March 1968 was higher with each higher level of educational attainment for every age group, except for those 18 and 19 and those 20 to 24 years of age with 1 year of college or more (table 96). Many of these young women probably were still in school. Lowest labor

Table 95.—LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATES OF WOMEN, BY EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT AND AGE, MARCH 1968

(Women 18 years of age and over)

Years of school completed	Total	Age						
		18 and 19 years	20 to 24 years	25 to 34 years	35 to 44 years	45 to 54 years	55 to 64 years	65 years and over
Total	42.0	49.5	53.6	42.7	49.0	52.4	43.0	9.5
Elementary school:								
Less than 8 years [1]	24.4	39.5	29.5	33.9	41.2	40.7	30.7	6.3
Less than 5 years [1]	17.4	[2] 18.8	[2] 17.0	18.8	35.2	34.0	28.1	5.1
5 to 7 years	28.2	[2] 45.6	32.5	39.1	43.6	43.7	31.9	7.3
8 years	30.8	47.7	36.5	36.2	46.2	49.2	38.3	8.4
High school:								
1 to 3 years	39.6	37.3	34.8	41.2	49.1	48.2	42.1	9.9
4 years	48.1	58.4	59.1	41.6	49.5	55.8	47.6	12.4
College:								
1 to 3 years	45.5	41.7	51.7	44.2	48.4	52.9	48.6	14.8
4 years	54.4	---	82.2	51.9	50.1	63.0	59.8	12.1
5 years or more	70.8	---	74.0	68.6	71.5	86.0	75.7	33.0

[1] Includes women reporting no school years completed.

[2] Base is less than 100,000.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Special Labor Force Report No. 103.

Table 96.—LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATES OF NONWHITE WOMEN, BY EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT AND AGE, MARCH 1968

(Women 18 years of age and over)

Years of school completed	Total	Age						
		18 and 19 years	20 to 24 years	25 to 34 years	35 to 44 years	45 to 54 years	55 to 64 years	65 years and over
Total	50.7	45.8	54.9	57.3	59.3	59.0	48.3	10.9
Elementary school:								
8 years or less[1]	38.6	40.5	33.7	40.5	52.3	51.9	46.5	10.1
High school:								
1 to 3 years	49.1	35.5	38.0	53.3	58.0	61.7	47.3	13.9
4 years	62.1	56.0	68.4	61.4	63.2	66.3	56.9	14.3
College:								
1 year or more	65.9	46.4	60.1	72.9	78.5	76.2	54.3	15.6

[1] Includes women reporting no school years completed.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Special Labor Force Report No. 103.

force participation rates for women of the usual working ages (18 to 64 years) were found among women 20 to 24 years of age with 8 years or less of schooling (34 percent) and among 18- and 19-year-olds with 1 to 3 years of high school education (36 percent). More than 7 out of 10 of all nonwhite women 25 to 54 years of age with some college education were in the labor force.

Among girls 16 to 21 years of age who were not enrolled in school, the difference in the labor force participation rates in October 1967 of high school graduates (70 percent) and school dropouts (39 percent) reflected primarily the fact that many of the dropouts left school to marry and have families (table 97). However, the lower labor force participation rates for dropouts than for high school graduates also held true among boys of this age group not enrolled in school, indicating that lack of schooling probably contributed to the nonparticipation of both boy and girl dropouts.

89. Educational Attainment and Occupations

The amount of education a woman has completed determines to a great extent the type of job she can obtain. Thus in March 1968 about half the employed women 18 years of age and over who had attended college were in professional and technical occupations (table 98) On the other hand, more than three-fourths of those who had attended elementary school only were operatives or service workers either inside or outside the home.

Among women who had attended college, there was a considerable variation in occupational distribution according to the number of years of school completed. For example, 91 percent of the women with 5 years of college or more were in professional and technical occupations, and another 3 percent were nonfarm managers, officials, and proprietors. In contrast, only 30 percent of the women who had completed only 1 to 3 years of college were in professional and technical or nonfarm managerial occupations.

Among women who had completed high school but had not gone on to college, about half (51 percent) were clerical workers, and 11 percent were in professional and technical or managerial occupations. Many of the remainder were service workers outside the home (13 percent) or operatives (12 percent). On the other hand, only a small proportion (20 percent) of the women who had attended but not completed high school were clerical workers. Such dropouts were mainly operatives (28 percent) or service workers outside the home (26 percent).

Table 97.—EMPLOYMENT STATUS[1] OF HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATES NOT ENROLLED IN COLLEGE AND SCHOOL DROPOUTS, BY SEX, AGE, AND COLOR, OCTOBER 1967

(Persons 16 to 21 years of age)

	Graduates				Dropouts			
	Number		Rate		Number		Rate	
Age and color	Population	Labor force	Labor force participation	Unemployment	Population	Labor force	Labor force participation	Unemployment
				GIRLS				
Total	3,456,000	2,417,000	69.9	11.5	1,557,000	602,000	38.7	19.1
16 and 17 years	112,000	73,000	65.2	([2])	353,000	127,000	36.0	24.4
18 and 19 years	1,476,000	1,072,000	72.6	14.9	585,000	239,000	40.9	21.3
20 and 21 years	1,868,000	1,272,000	68.1	8.2	619,000	236,000	38.1	14.0
White	3,042,000	2,144,000	70.5	10.2	1,273,000	489,000	38.4	16.6
Nonwhite	414,000	273,000	65.9	21.6	284,000	113,000	39.8	30.1
				BOYS				
Total	1,720,000	1,570,000	91.3	6.9	1,270,000	1,090,000	85.8	12.0
16 and 17 years	55,000	45,000	([2])	([2])	268,000	199,000	74.3	21.6
18 and 19 years	771,000	685,000	88.8	8.8	501,000	433,000	86.4	13.9
20 and 21 years	894,000	840,000	94.0	4.9	501,000	458,000	91.4	6.1
White	1,518,000	1,386,000	91.3	5.8	990,000	852,000	86.1	10.2
Nonwhite	202,000	184,000	91.1	14.7	280,000	238,000	85.0	18.5

[1] Data are for civilian noninstitutional population.

[2] Percent not shown where base is less than 75,000.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Special Labor Force Report No. 100.

Table 98.—Major Occupation Groups of Employed Women, by Educational Attainment, March 1968

(Women 18 years of age and over)

Major occupation group	Total	Years of school completed							
		Elementary school			High school		College		
		Less than 5 years [1]	5 to 7 years	8 years	1 to 3 years	4 years	1 to 3 years	4 years	5 years or more
Number (in thousands)	26,667	478	1,418	2,293	4,570	11,711	3,318	2,024	855
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Professional, technical workers	15.0	.6	.3	.9	1.9	6.4	24.5	77.3	90.7
Managers, officials, proprietors (except farm)	4.6	2.5	3.5	3.8	4.4	4.9	5.5	4.5	3.2
Clerical workers	33.9	1.2	4.4	10.7	19.6	50.6	48.5	13.0	4.2
Sales workers	6.5	2.3	2.8	5.8	8.4	8.0	6.1	1.4	.6
Craftsmen, foremen	1.1	.4	.5	1.8	1.8	1.0	.5	.4	.2
Operatives	15.6	34.7	35.3	31.9	27.8	11.8	3.0	1.0	.4
Nonfarm laborers	.4	.4	.7	.8	.8	.3	.1	----	----
Private household workers	5.8	36.4	23.0	14.7	7.7	2.6	1.6	.4	.2
Service workers (except private household)	15.4	17.9	25.8	25.5	25.7	13.2	9.4	1.4	.5
Farm workers	1.6	3.5	3.7	4.1	1.9	1.2	.8	.4	----

[1] Includes women reporting no school years completed.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Special Labor Force Report No. 108.

Women who had not gone beyond the elementary grades were particularly disadvantaged occupationally. Among those who had completed only 8 years of school, only 11 percent were in clerical occupations, with the largest proportions working as operatives (32 percent), service workers outside the home (26 percent), or private household workers (15 percent). And the most disadvantaged of all were those with less than 5 years of schooling. More than half of these women were service workers, either in private households (36 percent) or outside the home (18 percent). More than a third (35 percent) were operatives.

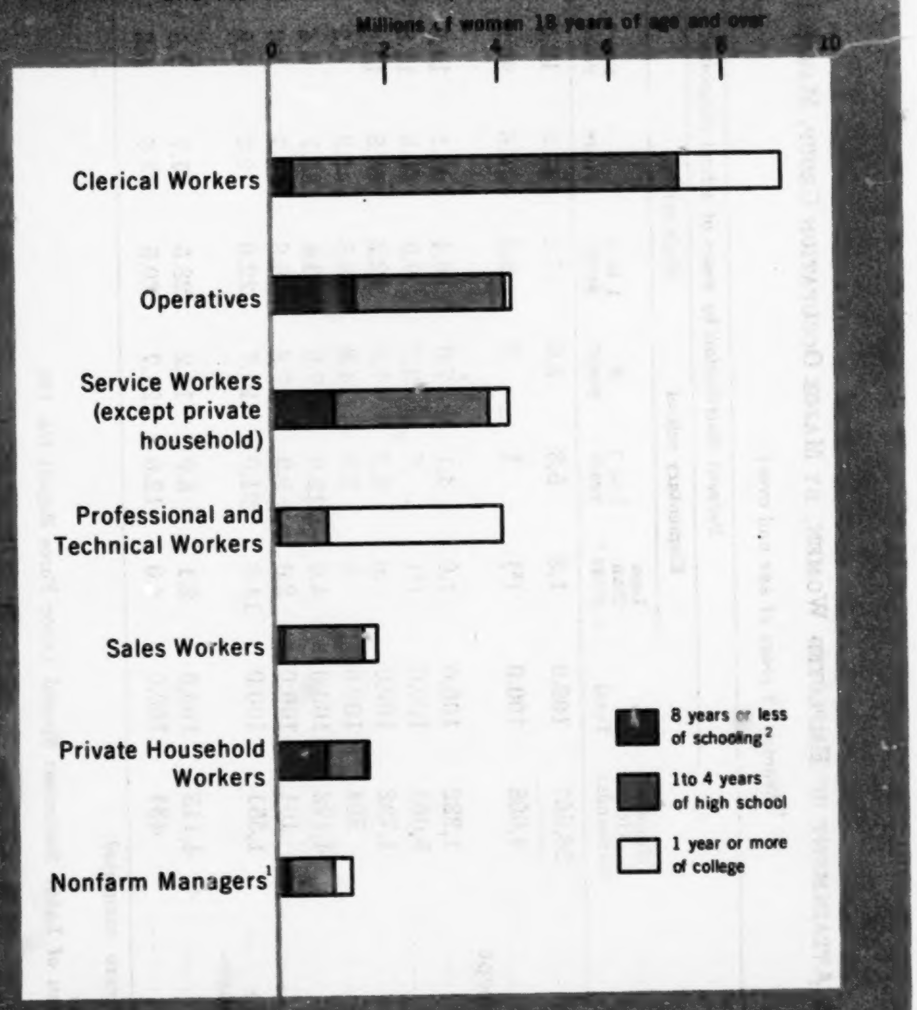
The close relationship between education and occupation is also evident from an analysis of the amount of education received by women employed in each of the major occupation groups (chart V). Of the 4 million women employed in professional and technical occupations in March 1968, 79 percent had attended college and 58 percent had graduated (table 99). Of the 9.1 million clerical workers, about 21 percent had some college training, and an additional 75 percent had attended high school (66 percent had graduated). Among the 1.2 million women employed as nonfarm managers, officials, and proprietors, there was considerably more diversity in educational attainment. In this major occupation group, 24 percent had attended college, an additional 64 percent had attended high school (47 percent had graduated), and 12 percent had 8 years or less of schooling. Among the 4.2 million women operatives, however, only 3 percent had some college, an additional 64 percent had attended high school (33 percent had graduated), and 34 percent had 8 years or less of education. Finally, among women employed as private household workers, less than half had more than 8 years of schooling.

Occupations of girl high school graduates and school dropouts.—Girls who complete high school enjoy occupational advantages as compared with those who drop out of school. Of the 2.1 million employed girls 16 to 21 years of age who had graduated from high school but were not enrolled in college in October 1967, 61 percent were in clerical jobs and another 7 percent were professional or technical workers (table 100). Twelve percent were operatives, 11 percent were service workers outside the home, and 2 percent were private household workers. In contrast, among the almost half million employed girls 16 to 21 years of age who had dropped out of school, 33 percent were operatives, 27 percent were service workers outside the home, and 12 percent were private household workers. Only 13 percent were clerical workers.

Chart 9

THE JOBS WOMEN HOLD REFLECT THE EDUCATION THEY HAVE HAD

(Number of Employed Women, by Selected Major Occupation Group and Years of School Completed, March 1968)



[1] Includes officials and proprietors (except farm).

[2] Includes women reporting no school years completed.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Nonwhite girls, whether graduates or dropouts, were disadvantaged occupationally as compared with white girls. Worst off were the nonwhite dropouts—54 percent were service workers either inside or outside the home, and 9 percent were farm laborers or foremen. Twenty-four percent were operatives, and only 8 percent were in clerical jobs. (See sec. 48 for additional discussion of occupations of nonwhite women.)

Table 99.—EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT OF EMPLOYED WOMEN, BY MAJOR OCCUPATION GROUP, MARCH 1968

(Women 18 years of age and over)

Major occupation group	Number (in thousands)	Percent distribution by years of school completed								
			Elementary school			High school		College		
		Total	Less than 5 years [1]	5 to 7 years	8 years	1 to 3 years	4 years	1 to 3 years	4 years	5 years or more
Total	26,667	100.0	1.8	5.3	8.6	17.1	43.9	12.5	7.6	3.2
Professional, technical workers	4,005	100.0	([2])	.1	.5	2.2	18.6	20.3	39.0	19.3
Managers, officials, proprietors (except farm)	1,222	100.0	1.0	4.1	7.0	16.4	47.1	14.8	7.4	2.2
Clerical workers	9,053	100.0	([2])	.7	2.7	9.9	65.5	17.8	2.9	.4
Sales workers	1,732	100.0	.6	2.3	7.7	22.2	53.8	11.6	1.7	.3
Craftsmen, foremen	284	100.0	.8	2.5	14.8	28.5	43.3	6.3	3.2	.7
Operatives	4,172	100.0	4.0	12.0	17.5	30.4	33.1	2.4	.5	([2])
Nonfarm laborers	101	100.0	2.0	9.9	17.8	36.6	31.7	2.0	---	---
Private household workers	1,551	100.0	11.3	21.0	21.7	22.6	19.3	3.5	.6	.1
Service workers (except private household)	4,113	100.0	2.1	8.9	14.2	28.5	37.7	7.6	.7	.1
Farm workers	434	100.0	4.0	12.0	21.7	20.5	33.6	6.2	2.1	---

[1] Includes women reporting no school years completed.

[2] Less than 0.05 percent.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Special Labor Force Report No. 103.

Table 100.—MAJOR OCCUPATION GROUPS OF EMPLOYED GIRL HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATES[1] AND SCHOOL DROPOUTS, BY COLOR, OCTOBER 1967

(Girls 16 to 21 years of age)

Major occupation group	Total		White		Nonwhite	
	Graduates	Dropouts	Graduates	Dropouts	Graduates	Dropou
Number	2,140,000	487,000	1,926,000	408,000	214,000	79,00
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.
Professional, technical workers	6.5	1.2	7.1	1.5	1.3	----
Managers, officials, proprietors (except farm)	.9	.6	1.0	.7	------	----
Clerical workers	60.7	13.3	61.6	14.4	52.4	8.
Sales workers	5.1	6.9	5.5	7.8	1.7	2.
Craftsmen, foremen	.3	.8	.4	.7	------	1.
Operatives	11.7	33.1	10.6	35.0	21.0	23.
Nonfarm laborers	.3	1.4	.3	1.5	.4	1.
Private household workers	1.9	11.9	1.6	10.0	3.9	21.
Service workers (except private household)	11.4	26.6	10.9	25.3	15.7	32.
Farmers, farm managers	--------	.2	--------	.2	------	----
Farm laborers, foremen	1.2	4.0	.9	2.9	3.5	9.

[1] Not enrolled in college.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Special Labor Force Report No. 100.

College majors and occupations.—A survey of occupational training of workers showed that in April 1963 women college graduates were more likely to be working in occupations related to their major fields of study than were women with 3 years of college—82 percent and 66 percent, respectively.[7] The proportion of women with 4 years or more of college who were utilizing their college majors in their current work was higher in some fields than in others. More than 90 percent of the women graduates who had majored in education and the health sciences were using their college training in their jobs, as were 88 percent of the women graduates who majored in business. However, among women graduates with majors in the social sciences and the humanities, only 76 percent and 69 percent, respectively, were using their academic training. Nongraduates with 3 years of college who had majored in health sciences were more likely to be using their majors (93 percent) than were those who had majored in education (65 percent).

According to a special study of graduates of predominantly Negro colleges, Negro college women have a stronger work orientation than white college women.[8] When compared with other college women who graduated in 1964, Negro women were more than twice as likely (40 percent) as southern white women (19 percent) and all other women (14 percent) to say that they realistically expected to combine marriage, childrearing, and gainful employment.

The study showed a remarkable similarity between the general fields of academic preparation chosen by Negro and white college women. Negro women were somewhat more likely than white women to have majored in fields where the correlation between occupations and college major is strongest, as shown in the 1963 training study discussed above in this section. Thus 64 percent of women students at predominantly Negro colleges majored in elementary or secondary education or other educational fields, as compared with 53 percent of southern white women and 50 percent of all other women. Moreover, Negro women were twice as likely as other women college students to major in business fields —4 and 2 percent, respectively. On the other hand, only 6 percent of Negro women majored in the humanities, where the weakest correlation had been reported, as compared with 20 and 19 percent, respectively, of southern white and all other women.

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[7] U.S. Department of Labor, Manpower Administration: "Formal Occupational Training of Adult Workers." Manpower Automation Research Monograph No. 2. 1964.

[8] U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Public Health Service: "Graduates of Predominantly Negro Colleges, Class of 1964." Pub. 1571. 1967.

Career fields actually entered by 1964 graduates immediately after graduation did not differ substantially for Negro and white women. The same proportion of Negro and southern white women graduates (55 percent) and only a slightly higher proportion of other women graduates (59 percent) entered the teaching field. Negro college women, however, were twice as likely as white women to find employment in the field of social work—10 percent as compared with 5 and 4 percent, respectively, of southern white and other women. As might be expected from their major field preparation, a smaller proportion of Negro (8 percent) than southern white (15 percent) or other women (11 percent) entered the humanities fields.

90. Educational Attainment and Unemployment

There is a fairly close correlation between limited education and unemployment. (For further information on unemployed women, see sec. 36.) Women who have not graduated from high school generally experience more unemployment than do those with more formal education. In March 1968 women 18 years of age and over with only 8 years of schooling had an unemployment rate of 5.1 percent (table 101). Those who had completed high school but had not attended college had an unemployment rate of 3.8 percent. Women with a college education run the least risk of unemployment—unemployment rates in March 1968 were 2.3 percent for women who had attended college for 1 year or more and 1.6 percent for those who had graduated.

Table 101.—UNEMPLOYMENT RATES OF WOMEN, BY EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT AND COLOR, MARCH 1968

(Women 18 years of age and over)

Years of school completed	Total	White	Nonwhite
Total	4.2	3.7	7.5
Elementary school:			
Less than 8 years[1]	6.1	6.5	5.3
8 years	5.1	4.2	10.6
High school:			
1 to 3 years	6.6	5.8	10.3
4 years	3.8	3.4	8.0
College:			
1 year or more	2.3	2.3	3.0

[1] Includes women reporting no school years completed.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Special Labor Force Report No. 103.

Unemployment is higher among nonwhite women than among white women at almost all educational levels. However, the correlation between limited education and unemployment is not as clear for nonwhite women. Among all nonwhite women 18 years of age and over in the labor force in March 1968, those with 8 years of education or less had a lower unemployment rate (7.2 percent) than did those who had completed high school (8 percent). This may be explained by the fact that nonwhite women who have completed high school may not be satisfied to work at semiskilled and unskilled occupations and have difficulty in finding and qualifying for more desirable work. For nonwhite women who had some college education, however, the risk of unemployment was much lower—their unemployment rate was only 3 percent in March 1968.

The effect of limited educational attainment was more clearly indicated by the unemployment rates in October 1967 among girls 16 to 21 years of age not enrolled in school. High school dropouts were much more likely to be unemployed than were graduates—19 and 11 percent, respectively (table 97). Among nonwhite girls the unemployment rate for dropouts was a startling 30 percent as compared with 22 percent for high school graduates.

Another measure of the relationship between education and unemployment is a comparison of the years of school completed by employed and unemployed women in the labor force. One-fifth of the women 18 years of age and over who were unemployed in March 1968 had an eighth grade education or less (table 102). In contrast, about one-sixth of the employed women had so little schooling. Moreover, almost half of the unemployed but only about a third of the employed women had not completed high school. At the upper end of the education scale, 1 out of 8 of the unemployed but nearly 1 out of 4 of the employed, had attended college for 1 year or more.

Among nonwhite women a slightly larger proportion of the employed (29 percent) than of the unemployed (27 percent) had an eighth grade education or less, and the proportions of employed and unemployed women who were high school graduates did not differ greatly—32 and 34 percent, respectively. The advantage of some college education was, however, reflected in the employment figures: the proportion of the employed who attended college for 1 year or more substantially exceeded that of the unemployed with this much education—16 and 6 percent, respectively.

Table 102.—EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT OF WOMEN IN THE LABOR FORCE, BY EMPLOYMENT STATUS AND COLOR, MARCH 1968

(Women 18 years of age and over)

Years of school completed	All women		White women		Nonwhite women	
	Employed	Unemployed	Employed	Unemployed	Employed	Unemployed
Total	26,667,000	1,179,000	23,330,000	908,000	3,337,000	271,000
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Elementary school:						
Less than 8 years [1]	7.1	10.5	5.4	9.6	19.1	13.2
8 years	8.6	10.5	8.4	9.6	9.6	13.9
High school:						
1 to 3 years	17.1	27.2	16.3	25.8	22.8	32.2
4 years	43.9	39.2	45.6	40.6	32.1	34.2
College:						
1 year or more	23.2	12.6	24.2	14.4	16.5	6.2
Median years of school completed	12.4	12.0	12.4	12.1	11.8	11.2

[1] Includes women reporting no school years completed.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Special Labor Force Report No. 103.

91. Educational Attainment and Hours of Work

Women with a limited amount of formal education are more likely to be employed part time than are highly educated women. Many of the occupational opportunities available to women with little schooling are in private household or other service work—typically part-time jobs. Among women employed in nonagricultural industries in March 1968 the likelihood of working less than 35 hours a week generally diminished with each higher level of school attainment (table 103). Of all employed women with less than 8 years of schooling, 35 percent worked part time. The comparable percentages for employed women with a high school education but no college and those with 4 years of college education or more were 26 and 22 percent, respectively.

Table 103.—WEEKLY HOURS OF WORK OF WOMEN EMPLOYED IN NONAGRICULTURAL INDUSTRIES, BY EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT, MARCH 1968

(Women 18 years of age and over)

Years of school completed	Number	Percent distribution: Total	35 hours or more	1 to 34 hours
Total	26,165,000	100.0	71.1	28.9
Elementary school:				
Less than 8 years[1]	1,821,000	100.0	65.1	34.9
8 years	2,194,000	100.0	68.0	32.0
High school:				
1 to 3 years	4,472,000	100.0	66.6	33.4
4 years	11,524,000	100.0	73.7	26.3
College:				
1 to 3 years	3,288,000	100.0	67.6	32.4
4 years or more	2,866,000	100.0	77.9	22.1

[1] Includes women reporting no school years completed.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Special Labor Force Report No. 103.

Training Programs for Women

Opportunities to obtain the occupational and other preemployment training necessary to prepare for gainful employment are available to women and girls through a variety of federally assisted vocational education and training programs. These programs are designed to reach, among others, mature women workers, many with family responsibilities, who are entering or reentering the labor force or who have been displaced from previous employment; younger women about to enter the labor force, who need skill development to compete successfully in an economy of advancing skill demands; and undereducated women and women with other limitations stemming from deprived backgrounds, who need special assistance and training to enable them to advance their economic status by qualifying for regular employment at higher skill levels.

92. *Federally Aided Vocational Education*

Vocational education through cooperative Federal-State-local programs is the oldest federally aided training program—initiated half a century ago under the Smith-Hughes Act of 1917 and gradually extended under subsequent acts. The Vocational Education Act of 1963 provided for extensive broadening, enlarging, and improving of vocational programs to permit vocational education to react with more sensitivity both to the demands of the economy and to the needs of various segments of the population. The act provided more flexibility for training in previously authorized occupation groups and authorized vocational training in business and office occupations not covered by the previous laws. With these changes federally aided vocational training excluded no occupations except those generally considered professional or requiring a baccalaureate or higher degree.

Despite substantial progress in vocational education made under the 1963 act, further changes were needed to adapt the system to new conditions. Thus vocational education amendments of 1968 placed major emphasis on expansion and improvement in programs for both youth and adults with physical, academic, or socioeconomic handicaps that prevent them from succeeding in the rregular vocational education programs. The amendments also stressed the need for greater expansion of programs at postsecondary levels to meet demands of the highly technical and specialized modern economy and, in addition, new programs for the handicapped.

The 1968 amendments provided greatly increased resources for vocational education programs and for supportive services in the form of research, experimental, and demonstration projects; curriculum development; training of personnel; studies and projections of manpower needs; and national and State advisory councils on vocational education.

Vocational education under present legislation is designed to prepare all groups in the community for their place in the world of work. This includes high school students, high school gradu-

ates or dropouts who are free to study full time in preparing for a job, and persons who have already entered the labor force, whether employed, unemployed, or underemployed, who may need training or retraining. Persons already receiving training allowances under other Federal training programs, however, are not eligible for vocational education courses.

Recent legislation has also expanded provision for work experience programs for vocational students. The two main types of work experience programs are work-study programs and cooperative education. Under the work-study programs Federal funds are available to permit needy full-time vocational education students 15 to 20 years of age to stay in school and to be paid for part-time work at school or some other public agency. (See also Work-study assistance in sec. 87.)

Cooperative education, the other main type of work experience program, has long been prevalent in trade and industrial education and in distributive education. In cooperative education, courses are arranged to allow alternate periods of work and class attendance. On-the-job training provided by employers in accordance with such an arrangement must be under public supervision to assure that actual vocational training is provided. The advantages of this type of training were recognized by Congress, which in the 1968 act authorized Federal funds for its expansion in order to provide students with "meaningful work experience" and to "create interaction between educators and employers" on their common needs and problems.

A distinction between work-study programs and cooperative education is that the former serve primarily to offer financial aid while the latter is a planned part of an educational program. Only in the cooperative program is the work supervised by the educational staff responsible for the student's vocational training. Both types of program, however, have great value in affording students the opportunity to prepare for employment through actual work experience as well as formal educational training.

Enrollments of students in vocational courses increased by 54 percent from 1964 to 1967; enrollments of women students increased by almost 66 percent. More than 3.8 million women and girls were enrolled in public vocational courses in the 1966–67 school year (table 104). Of these, about 61 percent were enrolled in regular secondary school programs, 32 percent were in adult extension courses, and 6 percent were in post-secondary-school programs. In addition, about 35,000 disadvantaged women and

Table 104.—WOMEN ENROLLED IN PUBLIC VOCATIONAL COURSES, BY TYPE OF PROGRAM, 1966–67

Program	All women enrollees			Secondary school courses		Post-secondary-school courses		Adult extension courses		Special needs programs	
	Number	Percent distribution	As percent of total enrollees	Number	Percent distribution	Number	Percent distribution	Number	Percent distribution	Number	Percent distribution
Total	3,827,166	100.0	54.3	2,349,070	100.0	214,617	100.0	1,228,159	100.0	35,320	100.0
Home economics[1]	2,101,221	54.9	96.2	1,416,185	60.3	3,036	1.4	659,501	53.7	22,499	63.7
Job-oriented courses	57,025	1.5	91.6	18,286	.8	2,744	1.3	31,762	2.6	4,236	12.0
Office occupations	1,214,925	31.7	77.3	781,459	33.3	128,509	59.9	301,494	24.5	3,463	9.8
Distribution	214,314	5.6	44.6	74,446	3.2	6,698	3.1	130,917	10.7	2,253	6.4
Trades and industry	155,808	4.1	10.5	53,849	2.3	17,189	8.0	79,218	6.5	5,552	15.7
Health occupations	109,005	2.8	94.7	15,773	.7	51,008	23.8	40,837	3.3	1,387	3.9
Technical education	22,890	.6	8.6	2,445	.1	7,509	3.5	12,881	1.0	55	.2
Agriculture	9,003	.2	1.0	4,913	.2	668	.3	3,311	.3	111	.3

[1] Includes women in courses not shown separately.

Source: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education, Division of Vocational and Technical Education.

girls, or about 1 percent of the total enrollment, were enrolled in special needs programs.

Women accounted for 54 percent of the total enrollment in public vocational courses in 1966–67, but they accounted for virtually all the enrollment in home economics and health occupations courses and more than three fourths in office occupations training.

More than 2.1 million, or 55 percent, of the women receiving federally aided vocational training in 1967 were enrolled in home economics classes. Home economics enrollment amounted to 64 percent of women's enrollments in special needs programs, 60 percent in secondary schools, 54 percent in adult extension courses, and 1 percent in post-secondary-school programs.

While home economics courses formerly were designed primarily to improve the quality of home and family life, the Vocational Education Act of 1963 provided for additional courses directed toward gainful employment. In 1967 about 57,000 women were enrolled in job-oriented home economics courses. About 32,000 of these women were in adult extension courses, 18,000 were full-time students in secondary schools, 4,000 were in special needs programs, and 2,700 were in post-secondary-school courses. These women gained knowledge and skills in such home economics subjects as food and clothing management, production, and services; child care and guidance; home furnishing and equipment services; and home and institutional management.

Although federally aided vocational training in office occupations had not been authorized prior to the 1964–65 school year, more than 1.2 million girls and women, or 32 percent of women vocational students, were taking such training in 1967. The proportion of women training for office occupations in secondary school vocational courses was 33 percent; in adult extension courses, 25 percent; and in special needs programs, 10 percent. Among post-secondary-school students, however, almost 129,000, or 60 percent, were training for office occupations. The training includes such subjects as accounting and computing, data processing, filing and general clerical work, stenography, secretarial skills, typing, operation of office machines, personnel, and office management.

The 214,000 women participating in the distributive education program during the 1966–67 school year represented 45 percent of all enrollees in this field. These women were studying such subjects as salesmanship, buying, pricing, advertising and display, fashion, and business organization. Although less than 6 percent of all women vocational students were in distributive education, 131,000 women, or 11 percent of those in adult extension courses, were training for this field.

Courses in trades and industry accounted for nearly 156,000 women in 1967, or 11 percent of all vocational education enrollees in this field. About 79,000, or more than half of these women, were in adult extension courses, but almost 54,000 were regular secondary school students. The most commonly offered courses in this area are beauty culture, power machine operation, and consumer foods.

Enrollees in health occupations courses included 109,000 women in 1967, almost tripling the enrollment of women in 1956. This growth reflects both the stimulus of Federal funds and the increasing demands for hospital and other personnel required to supplement the services of professional nurses. Programs of study in the health occupations supportive to the professions of nursing, medicine, and dentistry include practical nursing, certified laboratory assisting, and dental assisting. These programs are carried out in cooperation with hospitals and other health agencies. Most of the women vocational students studying health occupations were either in post-secondary-school programs (51,000) or in adult extension courses (41,000). Despite the great demand for health workers, only 3 percent of all women vocational students were studying health occupations. Among post-secondary-school students, however, 24 percent were training in health occupations.

Women enrolled in technical education courses numbered about 23,000 and accounted for less than 1 percent of all women vocational students. Most women studying technical subjects were in adult extension or post-secondary-school programs. Electrical and electronics technology, drafting and design, and data processing were some of the courses offered in this field. Men outnumbered women in technical courses by 11 to 1.

93. Training Programs Under the Department of Labor

As part of the overall national effort to reduce and eventually eliminate poverty, the Department of Labor is directly and extensively involved in a variety of manpower development and training programs. Since 1965 the emphasis in these programs has been on reaching disadvantaged persons and providing them with training, augmented by the many supportive services needed to overcome their disadvantaged status in qualifying for employment.

Training under the Manpower Development and Training Act.—The Manpower Development and Training Act (MDTA) of 1962 has been adapted to socioeconomic changes and shifting national manpower needs and challenges. Originally enacted to provide a diversified nationwide training program for the unemployed and underemployed, it has been expanded to provide more tools and incentives to draw increasing numbers of disadvantaged persons into training. The earliest amendments in 1963 launched a greatly expanded youth program to focus on disadvantaged youth, and began the process of liberalizing training allowance provisions. Succeeding amendments in 1965 and 1966 supplied greater training incentives through expanded provision for income maintenance, a crucial concern to the disadvantaged.

At the same time administrative measures have been focused increasingly on improving related remedial training services, such as counseling and testing programs and social services, and on coordinating training resources with other antipoverty and manpower development programs to maximize the effectiveness of the act. By 1966 the MDTA had become an important part of the national war on poverty. Plans initiated since that date set a goal of devoting about two-thirds of the MDTA training effort to serving the manpower needs of disadvantaged persons; the other third continued to be designated for one of the act's original objectives—training to meet skill and occupational shortages.

As of the end of June 1968 nearly 400,000 women and girls (3 out of every 8 trainees) had been enrolled in MDTA training since the act's inception—300,000 of them in institutional vocational training courses and 100,000 in on-the-job training (OJT). The proportion of women enrollees has shown a steady advance in both programs. During fiscal year 1968 an estimated 62,000 women were enrolled in the institutional training program, and 40,000 were in the OJT program—accounting for 45 percent and 32 percent, respectively, of the year's total trainee roster (table 105).

The characteristics of the 1968 MDTA enrollees indicate that the programs are reaching women of disadvantaged status. In the institutional program, for example, 50 percent of the women trainees were heads of families, 39 percent had three or more dependents, and 17 percent were public assistance recipients. Almost half (49 percent) were dropouts who had not completed high school, and 53 percent were nonwhite. Women of all ages were represented: 36 percent were under 22 years of age, 34 percent were between 22 and 34, 17 percent were between 35 and 44, and the remainder were 45 and over.

Table 105.—PERCENTAGE OF WOMEN ENROLLED IN MDTA TRAINING PROGRAMS, BY SELECTED CHARACTERISTICS, FISCAL YEAR 1968

Characteristics	Type of training	
	Institutional	On-the-job
Number	62,000	40,000
Percent	100	100
Age:		
Under 19 years	13	10
19 to 21 years	23	22
22 to 34 years	34	39
35 to 44 years	17	17
45 years and over	13	12
Education:		
Less than 8 years	6	5
8 years	7	8
9 to 11 years	36	36
12 years	42	45
Over 12 years	9	6
Head of family	50	35
Three or more dependents	39	34
Public assistance recipients	17	8
Nonwhite	53	47

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Manpower Administration.

The OJT program has been slower in absorbing women trainees and particularly women in disadvantaged categories (stemming in part from the participation in the trainee selection process by employer sponsors with their preference for the better qualified trainees). But steady progress is being made toward broadening these highly desirable training opportunities for all women. During fiscal year 1968 the proportion of women in this program advanced to about one-third, from an initial proportion of about one-fifth. In this program, too, 49 percent of the women trainees had less than a high school education. Forty-seven percent were nonwhite, and 32 percent were under age 22. But, as compared with the institutional program, a higher proportion (39 percent) were between 22 and 34 years of age. Moreover, a smaller proportion had family responsibilities—35 percent were heads of families and 34 percent reported at least three dependents. And only 8 percent were public assistance recipients.

A wide variety of occupational training is being offered to women in MDTA programs. But the greatest proportion are being trained in occupations traditionally held by women. In the institutional program about 9 out of 10 of the women enrolled during fiscal year 1968 were trained in professional or semiprofessional and technical occupations, clerical and sales work, and services (table 106). The greatest concentration was found in the growing health field—in refresher training for professional nurse and in training for licensed practical nurse and a variety of other health services occupations. The second largest concentration was in office-clerical occupations. The pattern is generally the same for the OJT program, but with a different "mix." A greater proportion of women trainees in this program have been trained in industrial occupations for which OJT is used more extensively. Nevertheless, about half of the women enrolled during fiscal year

Table 106.—PERCENTAGE OF WOMEN ENROLLED IN MDTA PROGRAMS, BY SELECTED OCCUPATIONS, FISCAL YEAR 1968

Occupation	Type of training	
	Institutional	On-the-job
Number	62,000	40,000
Percent	100	100
Professional, technical, and managerial [1]	27	4
Professional nurse (refresher)	9	----
Occupations in medicine and health [2]	15	----
Clerical and sales [1]	41	15
Computing and account recording (n.e.c.	9	4
Stenographer	9	----
Stenographer-typist and related	14	----
Service [1]	23	32
Attendants, home and first aid	----	19
Attendants, hospital and related [3]	13	----
Chefs and cooks (large hotels and restaurants)	3	----
Waitress and related	----	4
Farming, fishing, forestry	(4)	(4)
Processing [1]	(4)	6
Mixing and blending (chemicals, plastics, etc.)	----	3
Machine trades	2	12
Bench work [1]	5	22
Electronic components assembly and repair	----	4
Structural work	2	7
All other occupations	(4)	2

[1] Includes women being trained in occupations not shown separately.

[2] Includes licensed practical nurse, surgical technician, inhalation therapist, medical laboratory technician, and dentist's assistant.

[3] Includes nurses' aide, ward attendant, psychiatric aide, and tray-line worker.

[4] Less than 1 percent.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Manpower Administration.

1968 were in professional and technical, clerical, sales, and service occupations. Within these groups the largest concentration of women was in health-related services occupations.

Training and other opportunities under the Economic Opportunity Act.—Operating under delegation from the Office of Economic Opportunity, the Department of Labor administers a number of work training programs authorized under the Economic Opportunity Act (EOA) of 1964, as amended. These include the Neighborhood Youth Corps (NYC) and a complex of adult work training and experience programs. More recently the Department was also assigned responsibility for administering the Work Incentive Program (WIN) authorized by new amendments to the Social Security Act in furtherance of one of the objectives of the EOA—to move people off welfare rolls and into productive employment. All of these programs serve the needs of impoverished women and young girls as they aid the poverty population at large; some are of especial importance in their capacity to serve the needs of women workers in poverty status.

The Neighborhood Youth Corps.—This exclusively youth program offers work training to those under age 22 who are members of impoverished families. For in-school youth it provides part-time and summer work which enables many potential dropouts to stay in school. For those who have dropped out or completed school but have no job-ready skills, it provides training to increase their employability.

As of the end of fiscal year 1968, nearly 1.6 million youth had been the beneficiaries of this program since its inception in January 1965. About one-third of these opportunities were provided during fiscal year 1968, as the program gained momentum.

Work projects for these youth are sponsored by both private and public organizations in local communities. Projects are designed to provide socially useful services for the community which would not be available without Federal financial assistance. Sponsors have included community action agencies, public schools, conservation groups, forestry and rural development agencies, libraries, hospitals, Indian tribes, and various local and State agencies. Enrollees have provided a wide variety of needed services, as aides in libraries, schools, cafeterias, museums and art galleries, public housing projects, hospitals, parks, old-age and nursing homes, and the like.

The in-school program is aimed primarily at potential school dropouts, bringing to these youth the financial assistance and work experience needed to motivate them to remain in school.

The out-of-school program—as the name implies—serves impoverished youth who are generally dropouts with no prospects of resuming their schooling. Both programs provide counseling, remedial education, and a variety of other supportive services to make schoolroom education more meaningful or to fill gaps in job readiness. Job referral and placement services are also part of the programs. Young girls have shared almost equally with male youth in NYC training; they have constituted about 45 percent of both in-school and out-of-school enrollees.

Adult work training and experience programs.—Amendments to the EOA in 1966 created programs for the assistance of chronically unemployed and poverty-stricken adults. Three such programs were initiated during fiscal year 1967:

Operation Mainstream established projects for improvement and rehabilitation of the physical environment and community facilities, such as improvement of parks, forests, and wildlife areas, roadside beautification, water and air pollution control measures; and provision of centers to furnish social services for the poor. This program has brought jobs and training opportunities to both rural and urban poor people with a history of chronic unemployment. The nature of the work performed on most projects provides only minimal opportunities for women. As a consequence, most of the participants have been men, with a considerable proportion of these opportunities opened to the particularly disadvantaged older men. From its beginning in March 1967 through June 1968, training opportunities for almost 24,000 persons were authorized under this program.

New Careers is a program that offers extensive opportunities for women. Open to adults at least 22 years of age who come from families with incomes below the poverty line, it is aimed at establishing, on a permanent basis, new and necessary community service jobs that will open up career avenues and at the same time relieve critical national shortages of professional personnel in such fields as health, education, and public welfare services. The program is a pioneering effort along the lines of restructuring professional occupations—in both public and private agencies—to extract tasks requiring less than professional training and to prepare trainees to work as aides to professional workers. "Career ladders," or possibilities for advancement to more responsible jobs through structured channels of promotion, are implicit in the project designs.

Currently, New Careers projects are training practical nurses, patrolmen, social work assistants, teachers' aides, and many other preprofessional workers. During fiscal year 1968, more than 63 percent of all New Careers participants were women.

Special Impact, the third of the newer adult work training programs, has established projects in as yet a small number of urban neighborhoods with great concentrations of poverty-stricken residents. These projects are aimed at improving employment prospects of the residents and the overall social and physical environment of the neighborhoods. They provide work experience and training to the neighborhood residents in such activities as home renovation, improvement of health facilities, development of recreational facilities, and expansion of community social and economic programs. It is anticipated that these projects will serve as catalysts in improving urban slum-like areas while providing training that leads to employment, since another objective is to enlist the cooperation of private business in an effort to provide new opportunities for rehabilitation of the neighborhood and its residents.

Participation is open to chronically unemployed and impoverished persons at least 16 years of age. Projects are linked to other related programs—Federal, State, and local—as part of an overall comprehensive manpower effort to provide a spectrum of services to develop the employability of hardcore unemployed in impoverished population pockets.

The Work Incentive Program.—Under WIN welfare recipients are given occupational training and supportive services to prepare them for jobs that will remove them from welfare rolls. The entire matrix of Federal, State, and local agencies is used by the Department to deliver the needed manpower services. Local welfare and other agencies refer clients to the program, and State employment service agencies provide placement and related services for those ready and able to work. Those needing work experience and training and supportive services, such as basic and remedial education, are moved into the most suitable of the manpower development and training programs already described: MDTA institutional or on-the-job training, or one of the several youth and adult work experience programs authorized under the EOA. Placement in a job follows at any time that the client is judged ready by the local manpower agency. Those found unsuitable for training or jobs in the regular economy may move into special work projects developed through agreements between the Department of Labor and public agencies or private nonprofit organizations.

The cooperation of private industry, subsidized by Federal funds, is encouraged to provide on-the-job training opportunities under this program. Participants are permitted to augment their welfare grants to some extent by trainee earnings or allowances as an incentive to enter the WIN program. Day care centers are being established to enable welfare mothers to participate as extensively as possible.

Those eligible for this program are members of households receiving aid to families with dependent children, who are over 16 years of age and not in school full time. It is estimated that about three-quarters of a million welfare recipients can be assisted by this program by the end of fiscal year 1972. A sizable proportion are expected to be women who heavily weight the Nation's welfare rolls.

Newest program directions and innovations.—As the focus of the manpower development program was turned to the hardest core of the disadvantaged, the concept of human resources development evolved. It represented a departure in the administration of the Federal-State employment service to enable the system to respond effectively to the manpower challenge presented by the disadvantaged unemployed or underemployed and those traditionally looked upon as unemployable. Launched during the summer of 1966, the human resources program introduced the technique of reaching out on an individual basis to the most disadvantaged—those who do not themselves come forward for manpower services—and bringing to them training and related services to improve their employability, with the ultimate objective of placement in jobs. The program began in Chicago, with the employment service, community action agencies, and public welfare agencies participating, joined by the business and industrial community cooperating to provide training and job opportunities. Individuals in the target population were identified and contacted by neighborhood workers employed by the welfare agency. Employment service staff outstationed in neighborhood centers provided interviewing, counseling, and testing services, followed by referral to training or jobs, plus a program of job development among responsive employers.

This new person-to-person approach, providing a comprehensive array of manpower services tailored to the needs of the individual, paved the way for development of other manpower programs of similar purpose.

The Concentrated Employment Program.—CEP was one of the early outgrowths of the human resources development concept. It launched a concentrated attack on unemployment and subemployment in slum areas of selected large cities and in certain rural areas with severe manpower problems. It utilizes the same technique of outreach to contact and recruit residents of the designated target area who are most in need of manpower services and jobs, and provides a delivery system for bringing them concentrated individualized assistance under one coordinated agency sponsor. This program has been very effective in reaching impoverished women, who accounted for more than half of all those reached by late September 1968.

Each local CEP combines under single sponsorship, frequently the local community action agency, all of the available manpower services necessary to help persons move from dependency and unemployability to self-sufficiency by providing effective coordination between various manpower programs. It utilizes all the training and work experience programs heretofore described as provided under the MDTA and EOA, but it is funded as well as sponsored through this single source by allocation of funds already authorized for those programs.

The CEP provides an array of services: initial general work orientation conducted by counselors and coaches working with enrollees on an individual basis, followed by appropriate occupational or work training, further education, or placement in jobs. Supportive services are provided, as needed, throughout the CEP experience to enable enrollees to move into productive employment. Followup functions and guidance are provided after the enrollee has been placed in a job. Maximum involvement of the private sector of the community is sought by reaching out to business and industry as well as labor unions to line up job opportunities that were previously closed to the hardcore jobless.

By late 1968, 76 CEP's were operational, of which 13 were located in rural areas.

Cooperative programs with industry.—As manpower development programs have meshed with the antipoverty effort, the greater involvement of private industry has become another program focus. The success of early experimental and demonstration projects led to a major thrust to enlist the cooperation of private business to absorb into regular jobs, through specially structured training, those among the disadvantaged who previously were not considered for employment opportunities. The following two programs have been established to implement this drive:

Opportunities Industrialization Centers (OIC) are an outgrowth of an early experiment in Philadelphia which tailored training to employer specifications in order to prepare disadvantaged persons, largely youth, for available jobs. The success of this experiment, based on the concepts of partnership with business and trainee self-help in personal improvement, has led to establishment of similar programs on a nationwide basis funded by grants from the Departments of Labor and Health, Education, and Welfare and the Office of Economic Opportunity. Federal funds are being augmented by a drive for contributions from private industry and community sources.

OIC's conduct training for the disadvantaged in courses developed in cooperation with prospective employers, with whom enlightened entrance requirements have been worked out. Program directors work in close cooperation with the business community, with advisory committees of businessmen, and with such organizations as boards of trade to develop job prospects and specifically designed training programs. Other program aspects, such as scholarship funds and funds for personal emergencies, enable trainees to overcome hurdles which might otherwise block completion of training and movement into jobs. The early results of this program have shown a gratifyingly high rate of posttraining placement in training-related jobs.

Job Opportunities in the Business Sector (JOBS) is an emergent program which crystallizes the new thrust toward involvement of private industry in the effort to cope with hardcore unemployment. It is built upon the principle of subsidizing industry for the extra costs entailed in the intensive training required to provide the disadvantaged with social and personal employment services. It constitutes an expanded effort—JOBS programs are planned to cover 50 of the Nation's largest cities—to stimulate private industry to employ and train the hardcore unemployed.

The JOBS program is essentially an elaboration of MDTA on-the-job training and of recent small-scale test contracts which provided funds for the more intensive training and supportive services required to make it feasible for employers to hire and train the hardcore unemployed. Leadership in promoting this program has been taken by the recently formed National Alliance of Businessmen, which is composed of prominent and committed industry leaders. Under the program the Department of Labor can contract to reimburse employers for the extra costs of the added training needed by the target population groups.

94. Training and Other Programs Under the Office of Economic Opportunity

Other programs of special interest to women which were established under the act to combat poverty are the Job Corps, VISTA, and community action programs.

The Job Corps.—The Job Corps, administered formerly by the Office of Economic Opportunity, is a program for young people 14 through 21 years of age who are out of school and out of work and who lack the education and skills necessary to obtain jobs. Some high school graduates may be enrolled in exceptional cases. The Job Corps offers them a change of environment in residential centers and a total learning experience tailored to develop new habits and attitudes. At the residential centers of the Women's Job Corps, deprived girls are prepared to become skillful workers, homemakers, and responsible citizens. The centers offer basic education in reading, writing, speaking skills, and arithmetic; training in job skills for which there is a demand; education in home and family life; participation in the arts to develop self-expression and motivation; recreation and training in physical fitness; and counseling, guidance, and health services.

In December 1968, 19 Job Corps residential centers for women and one special center were providing educational and job training in such areas as secretarial, business, and clerical skills; data processing; retail sales; food preparation and service; health and paramedical services; cosmetology; child care; fabric arts and dress designing; graphic arts skills; driver education; and industrial electronics.

Each young woman in the Job Corps receives a monthly living allowance of $35 to $50 in addition to room and board, medical and dental care, and work clothing. An allowance of $50 for each month of satisfactory service is paid her at the end of her service if she has remained in the program at least 90 days. Of this amount, she may allocate to her family up to $25 a month, which is matched by the Job Corps.

Women who have completed their training period in regular Job Corps residential centers but are not yet ready for entrance into the competitive working world may be assigned to JC/YWCA extension residential centers. In December 1968 the 26 such centers operated by the Young Women's Christian Association were offering about 400 young women an opportunity for supervised work experience assignments while continuing to receive Job Corps benefits and services. Their work experiences are full-time, regular job assignments designed to increase their skills to employability level of competence. In addition, they receive counseling and guidance in personal and social development and supplemental education where needed.

In December 1968 about 10,000 women were enrolled in the Job Corps, in residential and extension centers. Women amounted to 28 percent of total enrollees. The 1967 amendments to the Economic Opportunity Act required that a 25-percent enrollment of women be achieved in fiscal year 1968 and a 50-percent enrollment as soon as practicable.

The Domestic Volunteer Service Program (*VISTA*).—A domestic version of the Peace Corps, VISTA offers Americans the opportunity to join the war on poverty at home by working on a volunteer basis with the disadvantaged. The program, formerly called Volunteers in Service to America, was renamed to reflect the broader scope provided by the Economic Opportunity Amendments of 1967 for the conduct of programs on a full-time or part-time basis or for shorter periods of time than the 1-year service period previously authorized. The volunteers, whether full-time or part-time, are trained for the job and location to which they are assigned. In October 1968, 45 percent of the almost 5,000 full-time volunteers serving in the field or in training for VISTA projects were women.

Full-time volunteers help teach, train, and counsel impoverished Americans in rural and urban community action programs, migrant worker communities, Indian reservations, hospitals, schools, and institutions for the mentally ill or mentally retarded. Their assignments may be in any of the 50 States, the District of Columbia, Puerto Rico, the Virgin Islands, American Samoa, or the Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands. These volunteers receive a monthly living allowance and are reimbursed for medical and dental expenses during service. In addition, they receive a readjustment allowance of $50 for each month of satisfactory service, to be paid upon completion of service.

The auxiliary and special volunteer programs authorized by the amended act include local community service volunteer programs, programs specially designed for the elderly (both as volunteers and as beneficiaries), demonstration projects with the Teacher Corps to assist in the rehabilitation of youthful criminal offenders, and special programs designed to stimulate and to initiate improved methods of providing volunteer services and to encourage wider volunteer participation. Volunteers in these special programs receive no stipend or living allowance, but they do get such other support as is required by the special circumstances of the project.

Community action programs.—Under title II of the EOA, urban and rural communities (including Indian reservations) may receive Federal assistance for programs developed by them to meet local poverty problems. The Federal Government can provide up to 80 percent of the cost of the programs (or 100 percent in the case of the very poorest communities). To be eligible to receive Federal assistance, a community must mobilize its own resources, develop a program that gives promise of eliminating poverty, and enlist the poor themselves in developing and carrying it out.

Programs may be in such areas as employment information and counseling, job training and development, health, remedial education, housing, and home management. These programs are generally carried out by a "community action agency," which may be a State or political subdivision, a combination of such subdivisions, or a public or private nonprofit agency designated by such a government entity. Special programs to meet problems common to a number of communities, which are also funded through the community action provisions of the EOA, include Headstart and Follow Through, Upward Bound, Neighborhood Health Centers, Family Planning, Migrant Programs, Legal Services, and Services to Older Persons.

95. *Apprenticeship Training*

Apprenticeship is one of the oldest systems of occupational training on the job for young adults. Apprentices develop skills as employed workers through practical experience and formal instruction on the job. At the conclusion of their terms of training —typically 4 years—they are certificated as full-fledged journeymen in their trades. Apprenticeship programs are directed by industry, usually through cooperative programs established by employers and labor organizations. They are closely related to the manpower needs of employers, who train for existing or prospective job vacancies.

The Bureau of Apprenticeship and Training in the Manpower Administration of the Department of Labor and the cooperating State apprenticeship agencies, operating through a network of field offices throughout the Nation, encourage the extension of apprenticeship programs and approve standards for training. Federal- and State-approved programs cover about 370 occupations.

Although women demonstrated competence in many industrial skills in a wide range of occupations during World Wars I and II, only a minimal proportion (less than 1 percent) of the estimated 278,000 registered apprentices in training at the beginning of 1968 were women. In mid-1968 women were being or had been trained as apprentices in 47 skilled occupations. These included such traditional apprenticeships for women as cosmetologist, dressmaker, fabric cutter, tailor, fur finisher, bookbinder, and dental technician. But some women have also been trained as apprentices in such occupations as clock and watch repairman, electronic technician, engraver, optical mechanic, precision lens grinder, machinist, plumber, draftsman, electrical equipment repairer, electronic subassembly repairer, and compositor.

In view of the increasing needs of the economy for highly trained and skilled workers, the Bureau of Apprenticeship and Training and the Women's Bureau of the Labor Department are jointly exploring opportunities for more women in apprenticeships. A goal of this joint effort is to delineate ongoing and new apprenticeship programs in growing or emerging occupations and industries where women can be trained and employed.

96. Vocational Rehabilitation of Handicapped Women

Through the State-Federal program of vocational rehabilitation, which began in 1920 and which has been progressively expanded, State agencies provide a wide range of services to the handicapped. All the States, the District of Columbia, Guam, Puerto Rico, and the Virgin Islands have vocational rehabilitation programs. Of the more than 200,000 handicapped people who were rehabilitated into employment through these programs in fiscal year 1968, an estimated 94,000, or 45 percent, were women.

Eligibility for vocational rehabilitation services is based on a finding of physical or mental disability the existence of which is a substantial handicap to employment and on a reasonable expectation that the services may enable the individual to engage in a gainful occupation. In most cases the criterion of rehabilitation is successful accomplishment in paid employment, verified by individual followup. In some cases it is the ability to perform the important work of homemaking; thus, an eligible woman may be provided rehabilitation services so that she can be the homemaker for her own family.

The basic State-Federal program focuses on the individual disabled person—his abilities and aptitudes, his interests, and his needs. Rehabilitation involves the special skills of a variety of professions collaborating to solve the complex problems often presented by severely handicapped persons.

Basic services include: 1) comprehensive evaluation, including medical study and diagnosis; 2) medical, surgical, and hospital care, and related therapy to remove or reduce disability; 3) prosthetic and orthotic devices; 4) counseling and guidance services; 5) training services; 6) services in comprehensive or specialized rehabilitation facilities, including adjustment centers; 7) maintenance and transportation as appropriate during rehabilitation; 8) tools, equipment, and licenses for work on a job or in establishing a small business; 9) initial stock and supplies as well as management services and supervision for small businesses, including the acquisition of vending stands by the State agency; 10) reader services for the blind and interpreter services for the deaf; 11) recruitment and training services to provide new careers for handicapped people in the field of rehabilitation and other public service areas; 12) the construction or establishment of rehabilitation facilities; 13) the provision of facilities and services which promise to contribute to a group of handicapped people, but which do not relate directly to the rehabilitation plan of any one individual; 14) services to families of handicapped people when such services will contribute substantially to the rehabilitation of the handicapped client; 15) other goods and services necessary to render a handicapped person employable; and 16) placement services, including followup services, to assist handicapped individuals to maintain their employment.

In addition to the basic State-Federal services, the Federal program of vocational rehabilitation includes a variety of related provisions to strengthen, increase, and improve public and nonprofit resources and services for rehabilitation of the handicapped. These include, for example, grants for research and demonstration projects for training of personnel, for construction and improvement of rehabilitation facilities, and for projects to expand rehabilitation services.

The Federal share of funds to support the basic State agency services changed from 75 to 80 percent beginning July 1, 1969. The Federal agency administering vocational rehabilitation services is the Rehabilitation Services Administration in the Social and Rehabilitation Service, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.

Many handicapped workers trained under vocational rehabilitation programs receive supplemental training under the Manpower Development and Training Act. Handicapped trainees (both sexes) enrolled in MDTA institutional projects represented 10 percent of the 150,000 institutional MDTA trainees in 1967, but the proportion of handicapped female trainees was small—only 5 percent compared with 14 percent for handicapped men.

97. Special Program for Private Household Workers

The Women's Bureau has been deeply concerned with the need to improve the social and economic status of private household workers. Present efforts to improve employment conditions in this occupation are intended to help not only those currently employed and their employers, but also many unemployed women and prospective employers. At the same time that many household positions cannot be filled because of the lack of qualified applicants, there are many unskilled unemployed women who could be trained for this occupation, and there are other women and girls who might enter the occupation if it had more dignity.

The Women's Bureau sponsored consultations on household employment in June 1964 and in February 1965, at which representatives of interested national organizations considered what was needed to improve working conditions and standards as well as worker qualifications and performance. As a result of these consultations, the National Committee on Household Employment was formed to combine and coordinate the efforts of national organizations interested in upgrading the field of household employment and to assist them in working with related government programs. The committee now includes 22 private organizations. The Women's Bureau continues to offer technical assistance in these endeavors.

The committee is demonstrating that this occupation can be reconstituted and the industry restructured. The committee has developed a recommended code of standards for household employees and employers. It has supported a participant-observer study of New York City household employees under the sponsorship of New York University and the National Council of Negro Women. It has also participated in the development of pilot training projects to upgrade employment standards and opportunities. The first demonstration project was in Washington, D.C. In March 1968 demonstration projects in seven cities were funded by the Department of Labor. Each of the projects is sponsored by a different organization and emphasizes a different approach to the upgrading of household employment, such as formal training and work experience programs; private businesses and cooperative organizations to provide household services; recruitment, counseling, job development, and placement aid; postplacement counseling and support; and the development, promotion, and institution of work standards. The National Committee on Household Employment provides technical supervision, monitors the projects, and acts as liaison between government and the projects.

Women private household workers are employed as general household workers, housekeepers, maids, cleaning women, laundresses, and babysitters. The 1.7 million women private household workers in 1967 constituted 98 percent of all workers in the occupation.

Wages in this occupation are extremely low. In 1966 women private household workers who worked full time the year round (slightly more than one-fifth of those employed) had median earnings of only $1,297. Their median total cash income, which included wage and self-employment income as well as all forms of social insurance and public assistance payments, was only $1,441. About 6 out of 10 of all women private household workers had total cash incomes under $1,000; just over 1 out of 10 had as much as $2,000 total cash income.

The low annual wages of women private household workers reflect not only their low rates of pay but also the intermittent character of their employment. In 1967, 62 percent of women private household workers 16 years of age and over worked part time (less than 35 hours a week). Only 26 percent of all women workers 16 years of age and over worked part time in 1967. Moreover, more than 4 out of 10 women private household workers, but only 3 out of 10 of all women workers, worked 26 weeks or less during 1966.

Full-time private household workers tend to work longer hours than other employed women do. In 1967, 37 percent of the private household workers on full-time schedules worked 41 hours a week or more, as compared with only 22 percent of all full-time women workers employed in nonfarm occupations.

A high proportion of women private household workers (an estimated 12 percent in 1966) are heads of families. For these women, low pay and long hours are particularly severe hardships.

Private household workers, as a group, are disadvantaged educationally. The median number of years of school completed by women private household workers in March 1967 was 8.9, as compared with a median of 12.4 years completed by all women workers. The 1960 census disclosed other characteristics of

women private household workers (excluding babysitters): their median age (46 years) was about 6 years more than that of all women in the labor force; 65 percent were nonwhite; more (54 percent) lived in the South than elsewhere; about 74 percent lived in urban areas; and only 11 percent were "live-in" workers.

In addition to being disadvantaged economically, private household workers are deprived legislatively. While an employer is required to remit the social security tax for a household employee who earns a minimum of $50 in a calendar quarter, this occupation is not covered by the Federal minimum wage and hour law. Moreover, these workers are generally excluded from other forms of protective legislation from which most workers benefit, such as State wage and hour laws, unemployment compensation, and workmen's compensation.

5

OUTLOOK FOR WOMEN WORKERS*

The demand for women workers will depend upon the Nation's economy and decisions regarding national objectives. Full utilization of all our human resources, whether manpower or womanpower, is essential if we are to achieve anticipated goals in the decades ahead.

With the population projected at 207 million in 1970 and 243 million in 1980, the Department of Labor anticipates a work force of 85 million in 1970 and about 100 million in 1980 to produce needed goods and services. The number of women workers is expected to increase faster than that of men workers in the years ahead, as it has over the past several decades. (See sec. 7 for discussion of labor force growth.) It is estimated that between 1968 and 1980 the number of women workers will rise by 23 percent; the number of men workers, by 21 percent. Population increases will account for a large proportion of the total labor force growth. Other factors will be the rising labor force participation of young adult women, if the recent trend continues, and the return of mature women to the labor force.

In 1968, 41.6 percent of all women 16 years of age and over were in the labor force (table 107). This percentage is expected to increase to 41.9 percent in 1980, while the corresponding rate for men will be virtually unchanged between 1968 and 1980. The rate for women in the main working ages (18 to 64 years) is expected to rise from 48.2 percent in 1968 to 49 percent in 1980. In the light of past trends, these projections are considered conservative.

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*Projections for 1970, 1975, and 1980 on population and labor force are for persons 16 years of age and over and assume an unemployment rate of about 4 percent, a continuation of recent trends in economic and social patterns in our society and of scientific and technological advances, and an absence of disasters. Projections for 1975 on employment in major occupation groups are for persons 16 years of age and over and assume an unemployment rate of 3 percent. These data are from the "Manpower Report of the President Including a Report on Manpower Requirements, Resources, Utilization, and Training." U.S. Department of Labor. January 1969.

Unless attributed to special studies, 1975 projections of manpower requirements for detailed occupations are for persons 14 years of age and over and assume an unemployment rate of 3 percent. These data are from "America's Industrial and Occupational Manpower Requirements, 1964–75." Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor. January 1, 1966.

Table 107.—LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATES, BY SEX AND BY AGE OF WOMEN, 1968 AND PROJECTED TO 1980[1]

(Persons 16 years of age and over)

Sex and age	Actual 1968	Projected to— 1970	1975	1980
Total	60.7	59.7	60.0	60.4
Men	81.2	80.3	80.1	80.3
Women	41.6	40.5	41.3	41.9
16 to 19 years	42.0	39.4	39.6	40.0
20 to 24 years	54.6	50.3	51.5	52.6
25 to 34 years	42.6	38.6	39.3	40.3
35 to 44 years	48.9	47.5	40.0	50.0
45 to 54 years	52.3	55.3	57.6	59.5
55 to 64 years	42.4	43.8	45.7	47.3
55 to 59 years	47.9	51.5	54.2	56.2
60 to 64 years	36.1	34.8	36.2	37.3
65 years and over	9.6	9.8	9.8	9.9
65 to 69 years	17.0	17.4	17.4	17.4
70 years and over	5.8	5.9	6.0	6.1
18 to 64 years	48.2	47.2	48.2	49.0

[1] Annual averages, including Armed Forces.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor: Bureau of Labor Statistics, Employment and Earnings, January 1969; Manpower Administration, "Manpower Report of the President Including a Report on Manpower Requirements, Resources, Utilization, and Training." January 1969.

The 1968 labor force participation rates of girls 16 to 19 years of age and of young women 20 to 24 years of age exceeded the rates projected for 1970 through 1980. Projections indicate that much larger proportions of mature women will be working in 1975 and 1980 than in 1968. The rate for women in the 45- to 54-year-old group, which was 52.3 percent in 1968, is projected at 59.5 percent in 1980; and the rate for those 55 to 59 years old, which was 47.9 percent in 1968, is projected at 56.2 percent in 1980.

Labor force participation rates by color show that a larger proportion of nonwhite women 16 years of age and over were in the labor force in 1968 (49.3 percent) than is estimated for 1970 (48 percent), 1975 (47.9 percent), or 1980 (47.5 percent) (table 108). The 1968 labor force participation rate of nonwhite girls 16 to 19 years of age exceeded that projected for 1970 but was below that estimated for 1975 and 1980. Only among nonwhite women 45 to 64 years of age was labor force participation in 1968 below that projected for 1970, 1975, and 1980. The labor force participation rate of nonwhite men at 78.8 percent in 1968 was almost the same as that estimated for 1970 through 1980.

What jobs will be available for women workers? Growth in

Table 108.—LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATES, BY SEX AND COLOR AND BY AGE OF WOMEN, 1968 AND PROJECTED TO 1980[1]

(Persons 16 years of age and over)

Sex and age	White				Nonwhite			
	Actual 1968	Projected to—			Actual 1968	Projected to—		
		1970	1975	1980		1970	1975	1980
Total	60.4	59.4	59.7	60.1	63.1	62.4	62.4	62.4
Men	81.4	80.5	80.3	80.4	78.8	78.3	78.5	79.0
Women	40.7	39.6	40.4	41.1	49.3	48.0	47.9	47.5
16 to 19 years	43.1	40.2	40.1	40.3	34.9	34.6	36.9	38.1
20 to 24 years	54.1	49.9	51.3	52.6	58.5	52.9	52.6	52.4
25 to 34 years	40.7	36.7	37.7	38.9	56.6	52.3	50.9	49.7
35 to 44 years	47.5	46.1	47.8	49.0	59.3	57.6	57.6	57.6
45 to 54 years	51.5	54.4	56.9	58.9	59.8	62.9	63.6	63.9
55 to 64 years	42.0	43.3	45.3	47.1	47.0	49.0	49.3	49.6
65 years and over	9.4	9.6	9.7	9.9	11.9	11.4	10.9	10.6

[1] Annual averages, including Armed Forces.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor: Bureau of Labor Statistics, Employment and Earnings, January 1969; Manpower Administration, "Manpower Report of the President Including a Report on Manpower Requirements, Resources, Utilization, and Training." January 1969.

the economy is, of course, never even. Industries have different growth rates: some will expand, others will show little change, and still others will decline as new industries develop. Moreover, growth rates are affected by priorities assigned by Federal and State Governments to the various goals to improve American life. Some of these decisions already have been made by newly enacted social legislation, such as the 1967 Social Security Amendments which increased the need for health and welfare workers. Other priorities in education, health, housing, transportation, and urban development—to name just a few—have not yet been established. These will affect significantly the occupational structure within industries and the demand for workers with specific skills and educational attainment.[1]

The Nation's manpower requirements in 1975 will be influenced by the following projected changes in industrial composition. Government and services will increase in relation to total employment, as will construction and trade. The proportion of all workers in finance, insurance, and real estate will be unchanged. On the other hand, the relative importance of manufacturing and of transportation and public utilities will decline slightly, and the proportions of all workers in agriculture and in mining will continue long term declines.

The occupational structure of the work force will continue to change, reflecting both technological developments and the different growth rates of industries. White-collar workers and service workers will be relatively more important; blue-collar workers and farm workers will decline as proportions of total employment.

The largest growth rate will be among professional and technical workers. Included in the estimated 12.9 million such workers in 1975 will be the following:

Teachers (all levels)	2,700,000
Engineers	1,500,000
Engineering and science technicians	1,000,000
Professional nurses	830,000
Accountants	565,000
Draftsmen	375,000
Physicians	305,000
Chemists	200,000

A study shows that the supply of chemists, physicists, life scientists, and mathematicians needed in 1975 will be double that available in 1967 in order "to maintain high levels of economic activity and technological advance, increasingly complex efforts in research and development, a strong national defense and our space programs."[2] The number of employed engineers needed will increase by two-thirds.

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[1] For employment opportunities in specific occupations, see "Occupational Outlook Handbook," 1968–69 edition. Bull. 1550, Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor, and publications of the Women's Bureau listed in the bibliography of this handbook.

A special study on the health industry indicates that between 1966 and 1975 the demand for physicians will increase by about one-third; for dentists, by more than one-fourth; and for both professional nurses and medical X-ray technicians, by nearly two-fifths.[3] The demand for occupational therapists, physical therapists, and medical technologists is expected to rise at an even greater rate. Many of these jobs will be filled by women.

A study on staffing American colleges and universities projects an increase between 1963 and 1969 of 42 percent in the full-time staff of institutions of higher education.[4] This should open up more opportunities for women teachers at the college level. But women may have more competition from men for jobs as elementary and secondary school teachers, if past trends continue.

Employment requirements for clerical and kindred workers in 1975 are estimated at 14.8 million. This would be about one-sixth more than the number employed in 1968. Despite increased automation, the demand for clerical workers will rise as the size and complexity of modern business organizations increase and as functions formerly performed by sales personnel are transferred to clerical workers. Demand will be high for stenographers, typists, and secretaries and for office machine operators, particularly those associated with computer operations. Most of these jobs will be filled by women.

Sales workers are estimated at 5.6 million in 1975. This would be one-eighth more than were employed in 1968. Employment prospects will be good for real estate agents, insurance salesmen, and retail sales clerks. Many of the opportunities for retail sales clerks will be part time at peak periods of the day or at peak periods of the year as stores in metropolitan or suburban areas extend their hours of operation. These jobs should prove attractive to women.

In the blue-collar field, the most rapid increase in requirements by 1975 will be for craftsmen—an occupation group with relatively few women. The demand for operatives will increase more slowly, and the demand for nonfarm laborers will be unchanged.

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[2] U.S. Department of Labor, Manpower Administration: "The Job Market for Engineers, Scientists, Technicians." January 1968.

[3] U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: "Health Manpower, 1966–75: A Study of Requirements and Supply." Report No. 323. June 1967.

[4] U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education: "Staffing American Colleges and Universities." OE–53028–67.

Requirements for service workers in 1975 are estimated at 12 million, or one-eighth more than in 1968. Little of this increase will be among workers employed in private homes. The greatest demand will be for health service workers such as practical nurses, hospital attendants, and nurses' aides; restaurant workers such as cooks and waitresses; beauty operators; janitors, caretakers, and building cleaners; and protective service workers such as policemen and firemen. A majority of these service jobs are held by women.

All of the foregoing estimates indicate a continued strong demand for workers with high levels of education, skill, and training. Conversely, job opportunities for those with little schooling and training will continue to decrease.

These factors, together with the increasing competition of men in traditional women's fields, indicate that women must take advantage of all the education and training available to them and develop their talents and abilities to the fullest extent possible. In this era of rising demand for more skilled workers and of accelerated automation, women must be adaptable and flexible in their attitudes—willing to learn and willing to make necessary changes. They must be alert to new job opportunities and to new training programs. Only if they are fully prepared by education, training, and the willingness to learn anew, will they be ready for the challenges and demands of tomorrow's society.

Part II

Laws Governing Women's Employment and Status

HIGHLIGHTS

Minimum wage—36 States, the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico have minimum wage laws in operation that apply to women; of these, 31 apply also to men. An additional 3 States have minimum wage laws applicable to women, but the laws are not currently in operation.

On February 1, 1967, 8.5 million new workers were brought under the Federal Fair Labor Standards Act for the first time. Most workers covered under the law's minimum wage and overtime pay provisions now must be paid at least $1.60 an hour.

Equal pay—31 States have equal pay laws; 5 States and the District of Columbia which have no equal pay laws have fair employment practices laws that prohibit discrimination in rate of pay or compensation based on sex. (D.C. has a police regulation.)

The Federal Equal Pay Act of 1963 prohibits employers from discriminating in the payment of wages on the basis of sex.

Sex discrimination—15 States and the District of Columbia prohibit discrimination in private employment based on sex.

Since July 2, 1968, employers and unions with at least 25 employees or members are covered under title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964—the Federal law prohibiting discrimination in private employment based on sex as well as race, color, religion, and national origin.

Executive Order 11375, amending Executive Order 11246, explicitly prohibits discrimination on the basis of sex in Federal employment and by Federal contractors.

Hours of work—41 States and the District of Columbia regulate daily and/or weekly working hours for women in one or more industries; 25 States and the District of Columbia set maximum hours of 8 a day, or 48 or less a week, or both.

Nightwork—18 States and Puerto Rico prohibit and/or regulate the employment of adult women in specified industries or occupations at night.

Industrial homework—19 States and Puerto Rico have industrial homework laws or regulations.

Employment before and after childbirth—6 States and Puerto Rico prohibit the employment of women immediately before and/or after childbirth.

Occupational limitations—26 States prohibit the employment of adult women in specified occupations or industries or under certain working conditions considered hazardous or injurious to health.

Age discrimination—Effective on June 12, 1968, discrimination in employment against persons 40 to 65 years old by employers, employment agencies, and labor unions is prohibited by Federal law.

Jury duty—All States, the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico permit women to serve on all juries. Women are eligible for Federal jury service in all jurisdictions by virtue of the 1957 Federal Civil Rights Act.

Marriage laws—46 States and the District of Columbia require a premarital health examination for both applicants for a marriage license.

Married women's rights—All States recognize a married woman's legal capacity to contract her personal services outside the home. Married women generally have control of their own earnings; however, in 4 of the 8 community property States, the wife's earnings are under the complete control of the husband.

6

FEDERAL LABOR LAWS FOR WOMEN

as of January 1, 1969

Not since the passage of the Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938 has there been major Federal legislation as significant to working women as certain enactments in recent years; namely, the Equal Pay Act of 1963, title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, the 1966 amendments to the Fair Labor Standards Act, and the Age Discrimination in Employment Act of 1967. Also of great importance is the 1967 Executive order prohibiting sex discrimination in employment. This chapter presents a brief description of each of these major Federal laws and the Executive order, with emphasis on the aspects of the laws that pertain to women workers.

98. The Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938

June 25, 1968, marked the 30th anniversary of the signing of the Fair Labor Standards Act (FLSA) into law. Known as the Federal wage and hour law, it was the first Federal law to establish a floor for wages paid to persons engaged in interstate commerce or the production of goods for commerce, as defined in the law, and to encourage a shorter workweek by requiring premium pay for work beyond a specified number of hours. The FLSA has made possible the raising of minimum wage rates for those in the lowest paid occupations and/or industries.

The original act in 1938 established a 25-cent-an-hour minimum wage for covered employment and provided for a gradual increase to a 40-cent minimum after 7 years. The law has been amended from time to time to increase the required minimum rate and to extend coverage to new groups of employees. The most recent amendments were passed in 1966.

The Fair Labor Standards Act does not limit the number of hours that an employee may work, but it does require premium pay of 1½ times the employee's regular rate after specified hours of work. When enacted in 1938, the act required payment of 1½ times the regular rate after 44 hours a week for the first year, after 42 hours in the second year, and after 40 hours thereafter.

99. Fair Labor Standards Amendments of 1966

At the present time, most workers covered by the law's minimum wage and overtime pay provisions must be paid at least $1.60 an hour, and 1½ times their regular rate of pay for all hours worked over 40 in the workweek. Among those to whom these provisions apply are: employees in manufacturing, processing, and distributing establishments; in the telephone, telegraph, radio, television, and transportation industries; those who handle goods moving in interstate commerce; those who regularly use the mails, telephone, or telegraph for interstate communication; and those who regularly travel across State lines while working.

The 1966 amendments extended the act's minimum wage protection to more than 10 million additional workers. Those covered for the first time included employees of large hotels, motels, and restaurants; hospitals, nursing homes, or schools; and those employed in laundering, cleaning, or repairing clothing or fabrics. Effective February 1, 1969, these employees must be paid at least $1.30 an hour, and overtime pay after 40 hours. The hourly minimum for these employees will increase 15 cents a year, until it reaches $1.60 an hour on February 1, 1971.

Some farm workers were also newly covered by minimum wage provisions, and, effective February 1, 1969, they must be paid at least $1.30 an hour. Farm workers, however, are exempt from the overtime pay requirements. Also exempt from these requirements are employees of hotels, motels, or restaurants and certain other employees serving food or beverages.

Special overtime provisions require employees of nursing homes, rest homes, and bowling alleys to be paid overtime after 48 hours in a workweek, while hospitals are permitted to compute overtime pay on the basis of a 14-day period.

Nearly 4 out of 5 nonsupervisory workers in private employment are now benefiting under the act.

Not covered under the Fair Labor Standards Act are executive, administrative, and professional employees (including teachers); outside salesmen; employees of small or local retail or service establishments; most farm workers; and employees of certain seasonal amusement or recreational establishments. In addition, private household workers are not entitled to benefits under the act.

The law is administered and enforced by the Wage and Hour and Public Contracts Divisions of the U.S. Department of Labor, which has regional and field offices throughout the United States. Information obtained from employers and employees is treated confidentially.

It is a violation of the law to discharge an employee for filing a complaint or participating in a proceeding under the law. The law provides methods for recovering unpaid minimum and/or overtime wages. Willful violations may be prosecuted criminally and the violator fined up to $10,000. A second conviction for such a violation may result in imprisonment.

A 2-year statute of limitations applies to the recovery of back wages, except that in the case of willful violations, there is a 3-year limitation.

100. Equal Pay Act of 1963

The Federal Equal Pay Act was signed June 10, 1963, as an amendment to the Fair Labor Standards Act. This law applies to all employees who are entitled to the benefits of the minimum wage provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act, and prohibits employers from discriminating on the basis of sex in the payment of wages for equal work on jobs requiring equal skill, effort, and responsibility and which are performed under similar working conditions. The equal pay amendment has been in effect generally since June 11, 1964, with deferment in the case of certain collective bargaining agreements until June 11, 1965.

The law does not prohibit wage differentials based on a seniority system, a merit system, a system measuring earnings by quantity or quality of production, or any other factor other than sex. It does prohibit an employer from reducing the wage rate of any employee in order to comply with the provisions of the act. Also, it prohibits labor organizations from causing or attempting to cause an employer to discriminate against an employee in violation of the equal pay provisions.

The Wage and Hour and Public Contracts Divisions of the Department of Labor administers and enforces the equal pay law. (See sec. 99 for enforcement information.)

101. Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964

A milestone in the progress of equal employment opportunity for women was reached with the passage of title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964. Effective July 2, 1965, title VII of that act prohibits discrimination in private employment based on sex as well as on race, color, religion, and national origin in industries affecting commerce. The law also applies to labor organizations and to employment agencies, including the Federal-State employment service system. Since July 2, 1968, employers and unions with at least 25 employees or members, respectively, have been covered.

The law makes unlawful specified acts by employers, public and private employment agencies, labor organizations, and joint labor-management committees.

Unlawful employment practices include:

- For an *employer* to fail or refuse to hire, to discharge, or otherwise to discriminate against an individual because of race, color, religion, sex, or national origin, with respect to compensation, terms, conditions, or privileges of employment; or to limit, segregate, or classify his employees in any way which deprives them of employment opportunities.

- For a *union* to exclude or expel from membership, limit, segregate, or classify its membership; fail or refuse to refer for employment any individual on any of the prohibited grounds; or to cause or attempt to cause an employer to discriminate.

- For an *employment agency* to fail or refuse to refer for employment any individual on any of the prohibited grounds.

- For *any of the above* to print, publish, or cause to be printed advertisements regarding employment indicating any preference, classification, or discrimination on any of the prohibited grounds.

- For an *employer, labor union,* or *joint labor-management committee* to discriminate on any of the prohibited grounds in apprenticeship or other training or retraining, including on-the-job training programs.

The exception to the above prohibitions is when sex is a bona fide occupational qualification reasonably necessary to the normal operation of the particular business.

Among those not covered are local, State, and Federal agencies, government-owned corporations, Indian tribes, and religious or educational institutions where the employee performs work connected with the institution's religious or educational activities.

Title VII is administered by the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission. The Commission has the responsibility of investigating complaints of discrimination and of attempting to resolve any discrimination found by means of conference, conciliation, and persuasion. A person who believes that he or she is a victim of discrimination may file a complaint with the Commission.

The Commission has no independent enforcement power. If it is unable to settle a complaint, it notifies the aggrieved employee who, on his own, may bring an action in U.S. district court under title VII.

In addition, individual Commissioners may initiate complaints if they receive information which indicates that the law has been violated; and where there is a pattern or practice of discrimination, rather than a single instance, the U.S. Attorney General may undertake action in the U.S. district court.

Before any action may be taken under title VII, however, opportunity must be given State fair employment practices agencies to resolve the complaint under State fair employment practices legislation within certain time limits. At present, with respect to complaints of sex discrimination, the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission defers to 12 States—Connecticut, Hawaii, Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan, Missouri, Nebraska, Nevada, New York, Utah, Wisconsin, and Wyoming—and the District of Columbia. In Alaska it defers only in charges alleging wage discrimination based on sex; in Colorado, where sex discrimination in apprenticeship and other training programs is alleged. In all of these jurisdictions, a complainant must seek relief from the State agency before filing a complaint with the Commission.

Employment by the Federal Government and by Federal Contractors

102. Executive Order 11375

On October 13, 1967, Executive Order 11375 was signed, which amended Executive Order 11246 of September 24, 1965, to explicitly prohibit discrimination on the basis of sex in Federal employment, employment by Federal contractors and subcontractors, and employment on federally assisted construction. The provisions concerning Federal employment became effective November 12, 1967; the remaining provisions, October 14, 1968.

Executive Order 11375 in effect superseded the Presidential directive of July 1962, which instructed Federal agencies to make all selections for appointments, advancement, and training in the

Federal service without regard to sex, except in unusual circumstances found justified by the Civil Service Commission.

The Civil Service Commission administers Executive Order 11375* with respect to complaints of discrimination based on sex made by Federal employees.

The Office of Federal Contract Compliance in the U.S. Department of Labor administers the provisions prohibiting discrimination in employment by Federal contractors and subcontractors and under federally assisted construction contracts.

103. Age Discrimination in Employment Act of 1967

The Age Discrimination in Employment Act of 1967, signed December 15, 1967, became effective June 12, 1968. The law prohibits discrimination in employment against persons 40 to 65 years old by employers, employment agencies, and labor unions.

The age discrimination law now applies to employers of 25 or more persons in an industry affecting interstate commerce, employment agencies serving such employers, and labor organizations with 25 or more members in an industry affecting interstate commerce. The law protects not only employed persons, but also persons applying for or seeking employment. Exceptions are made for situations where age is a bona fide occupational qualification reasonably necessary to the normal operations of a particular business. More specifically:

It is against the law

- For an *employer:*

—to fail or refuse to hire, or to discharge, or otherwise discriminate against any individual as to compensation, terms, conditions, or privileges of employment because of age;

—to limit, segregate, or classify his employees so as to deprive a person of employment opportunities, or adversely affect the individual's status as an employee because of age;

—to reduce the wage rate of any employee in order to comply with the act.

- For an *employment agency:*

—to fail or refuse to refer for employment, or otherwise discriminate against, any individual because of age, or to classify or refer anyone for employment on the basis of age.

- For a *labor organization:*

—to discriminate against anyone because of age by excluding or expelling any individual from membership, or by limiting, segregating, or classifying its membership on the basis of age, or by other means;

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*Federal employment provisions were superseded and strengthened by Executive Order 11478 issued August 8, 1969.

—to fail or refuse to refer anyone for employment so as to result in a deprivation or limitation of employment opportunities or otherwise adversely affect the individual's status as an employee because of age;

—to cause or attempt to cause an employer to discriminate against any individual because of age.

•For *employers, employment agencies,* or *labor organizations:*

—to discriminate against a person for opposing a practice made unlawful by the act, or for making a charge, assisting, or participating in any investigation, proceeding, or litigation under it;

—to use printed or published notices or advertisements indicating any preference, limitation, specification, or discrimination based on age.

The prohibitions against discrimination because of age do not apply:

—where age is a bona fide occupational qualification reasonably necessary to the normal operations of the particular business;

—where the differentiation is based on reasonable factors other than age;

—where the discharge or discipline of an individual is for good cause;

—where the differentiation is caused by observing the terms of a bona fide seniority system or any bona fide employee benefit plan. This applies to new and existing employee benefit plans, and to the establishment and maintenance of such plans. However, no employee benefit plan shall excuse the failure to hire any individual.

The Secretary of Labor is responsible for administering and enforcing the act. He may secure injunctions to enforce employment rights under the new law. Any aggrieved person may bring a civil action for legal or equitable relief, including unpaid minimum wages and overtime pay. However, this right terminates if the Secretary commences an action to enforce that individual's right. Before bringing a suit, an employee must notify the Secretary of Labor of his intent and allow the Secretary 60 days within which to secure voluntary compliance with the law. This notice must be filed within 180 days of the alleged unlawful act.

Where an employee pursues the remedies available under a State age discrimination law, the notice time to the Secretary of Labor is extended to 300 days of the alleged violation or within 30 days after receipt of notice of termination of the State proceedings, whichever is earlier.

Before an employee can bring a Federal court suit in an age discrimination practice also prohibited by State law, the State agency must be allowed 60 days within which to adjust the dispute. The 60 days are extended to 120 days when a State's age discrimination law is in its first year of operation.

A Federal court suit must be started within 2 years after the cause of action accrued, except for willful violations, in which case a 3-year statute of limitations applies. Criminal penalties of a fine of not more than $500 or imprisonment for not more than 1 year may be imposed for interference with the duties of the Secretary under the law.

The Wage and Hour and Public Contracts Divisions of the U.S. Department of Labor administers the act.

7

STATE LABOR LAWS FOR WOMEN

as of January 1, 1969

During a century of development, the field of labor legislation for women has seen a tremendous increase in the number of laws and a notable improvement in the standards established. Today each of the 50 States, the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico have laws relating to the employment of women. The principal subjects of regulation are: (1) minimum wage; (2) overtime compensation; (3) equal pay; (4) fair employment practices; (5) hours of work, including maximum daily and weekly hours, day of rest, meal and rest periods, and nightwork; (6) industrial homework; (7) employment before and after childbirth; (8) occupational limitations; and (9) other standards, such as seating provisions and weightlifting limitations.

Although legislation in one or more of these fields has been enacted in all of the States, the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico, the standards established vary widely. In some jurisdictions different standards apply to different occupations or industries. Laws relating to minors are mentioned here only if they apply also to women.

Minimum Wage

A total of 36 States, the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico have minimum wage laws with minimum wage rates currently in effect. These laws apply to men as well as women in 29 States, the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico. In 7 States the minimum wage laws apply only to women or to women and minors. An additional 3 States have minimum wage laws, applicable to females and/or minors, which are not in operation.

In general these laws are applicable to all industries and occupations except domestic service and agriculture, which are specifically exempt in most States.

The laws of 9 States—Arkansas, California, Colorado, Michigan, New Jersey, North Dakota, Utah, Washington, and Wisconsin—either set statutory minimum wage rates or permit a wage board to set minimum rates for both domestic service and agricultural workers. In Wisconsin wage orders cover both groups. The Michigan statutory rate applies to agricultural employees (except certain employees engaged in harvesting on a piecework basis) and domestic service workers, but is limited to employers of 4 or more. The Arkansas law is limited to employers of 5 or more and applies to agricultural workers, with some exceptions, whose employer used more than 500 man-days of agricultural labor in any 4 months of the preceding year. The New Jersey statutory rate applies to agricultural workers and excludes domestic service workers, but the law permits them to be covered by a wage order. California has a wage order applicable to agricultural workers, but has none for domestic service workers. The remaining 4 States—Colorado, North Dakota, Utah, and Washington—have no wage orders that apply to domestic service or agricultural workers.

The laws of 7 jurisdictions—the District of Columbia, Hawaii, Massachusetts, New Mexico, Oregon, Puerto Rico, and West Virginia—cover either domestic service or agricultural workers, but not both. West Virginia does not exclude domestic service workers as a group, but coverage is limited to employers of 6 or more. Some or all agricultural workers are covered under the minimum wage law or orders in the District of Columbia, Hawaii, Massachusetts, New Mexico, Oregon, and Puerto Rico.

Since the Federal Fair Labor Standards Act (FLSA) of 1938, as amended, establishes a minimum hourly rate for both men and women engaged in or producing goods for interstate commerce and for employees of most large retail firms and other specified establishments, as well as some workers in agriculture, the benefits of State minimum wage legislation apply chiefly to workers in local trade and service industries.

104. Historical Record of Minimum Wage Legislation

The history of minimum wage legislation began in 1912 with the passage of a minimum wage law in Massachusetts. At that time minimum wage legislation was designed for the protection of women and minors, and did much to raise their extremely low wages in manufacturing (now covered by the FLSA) and in trade and service industries. Between 1912 and 1923 laws were enacted in 15 States,[1] the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico.

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[1] One of these laws was repealed in 1919 (Nebraska); another, in 1921 (Texas).

Legislative progress was interrupted by the 1923 decision of the U.S. Supreme Court declaring the District of Columbia law unconstitutional, and no new minimum wage laws were passed during the next 10 years.

The depression years of the 1930's brought a revival of interest in minimum wage legislation, and 13 additional States and Alaska enacted laws.

In 1937 the U.S. Supreme Court upheld the constitutionality of the minimum wage law in the State of Washington, expressly reversing its prior decision on the District of Columbia minimum wage law.

In 1941 Hawaii enacted a minimum wage law, bringing to 30 the number of jurisdictions with such legislation.

From 1941 through 1954 no State enacted a minimum wage law. However, there was a considerable amount of legislative activity in the States which already had minimum wage legislation on their statute books. In some States the laws were amended to extend coverage to men; in others, to establish or increase a statutory rate; and in still others, to strengthen the procedural provisions.

In the period 1955–66 the following actions occurred:

10 States—Delaware, Idaho, Indiana, Maryland, Michigan, New Mexico, North Carolina, Vermont, West Virginia, and Wyoming—enacted minimum wage laws for the first time, making a total of 40 jurisdictions with such laws.

7 States—Maine, New Jersey, New York, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, and Washington—and the District of Columbia with wage board laws enacted statutory rate laws, retaining, with the exception of Maine and Oklahoma, the wage board provision. The enactments in 5 States—Maine, New Jersey, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, and Washington—and the District of Columbia also extended coverage to men.

4 States—Kentucky, Nevada, North Dakota, and South Dakota —amended their laws to extend coverage to men.

16 States—Alaska, Connecticut, Hawaii, Idaho, Maine, Massachusetts, Nevada, New Hampshire, New Mexico, New York, North Carolina, Rhode Island, South Dakota, Vermont, Washington, and Wyoming—amended their laws one or more times to increase the statutory rates.

2 States—Massachusetts and New Jersey—and the District of Columbia amended their premium pay requirements. Massachusetts amended its minimum wage law to require the payment of not less than 1½ times an employee's regular rate for hours

worked in excess of 40 a week, exempting a number of occupations and industries from the overtime provision. In New Jersey and the District of Columbia new statutory rate laws were enacted which included overtime pay requirements covering most workers.

Other amendments in a number of jurisdictions affected coverage of the minimum wage laws, clarified specific provisions, or otherwise strengthened the laws.

In 1967:

1 State—Nebraska—enacted a minimum wage law for the first time, bringing to 41 the total number of jurisdictions having such laws. This law establishes a statutory rate applicable to men, women, and minors, and is limited to employers of 4 or more.

1 State—Oregon—with a wage board law applicable to women and minors enacted a statutory rate law applicable to men and women 18 years and over.

1 State—New Hampshire—made its wage board provisions applicable to men.

1 State—Maryland—extended coverage by eliminating the exemption for employers of less than 7.

12 States—Connecticut, Delaware, Idaho, Indiana, Maine, Maryland, New Hampshire, New Mexico, Rhode Island, Vermont, Washington, and Wyoming—amended their laws to increase their statutory rates.

2 States—New Mexico and Massachusetts—extended coverage to some or all agricultural workers.

2 States—California and Wisconsin—with wage board laws revised wage orders, setting a single rate for all occupations and industries.

1 State—Michigan—amended its minimum wage regulations to decrease allowable deductions and strengthen enforcement.

In 1968:

1 State—Arkansas—with a statutory rate law applicable to females enacted a new law establishing a statutory rate applicable to men, women, and minors, effective January 1, 1969.

1 State—Delaware—amended its law to set a minimum rate for employees receiving gratuities.

1 State—Pennsylvania—amended its law to increase the statutory rate and to require overtime pay.

105. Roster of Minimum Wage Jurisdictions

The 41 jurisdictions with minimum wage legislation* are:

Alaska
Arizona
Arkansas
California
Colorado
Connecticut
Delaware
District of Columbia
Hawaii
Idaho
Illinois[2]
Indiana
Kansas[2]
Kentucky
Louisiana[2]
Maine
Maryland
Massachusetts
Michigan
Minnesota
Nebraska
Nevada
New Hampshire
New Jersey
New Mexico
New York
North Carolina
North Dakota
Ohio
Oklahoma
Oregon
Pennsylvania
Puerto Rico
Rhode Island
South Dakota
Utah
Vermont
Washington
West Virginia
Wisconsin
Wyoming

Eight States, the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico have laws that set a statutory rate and also provide for the establishment of occupation or industry rates based on recommendations of wage boards. (Only those jurisdictions which can set rates higher than the statutory minimum or expand coverage are shown below.) Nineteen States have statutory rate laws only; that is, the rate is set by the legislature. Twelve States (including 3 with no minimum wage rates currently in effect) have laws that set no fixed rate but provide for minimum rates to be established on an occupation or industry basis by wage board action.

The following list shows, for the 41 jurisdictions, the type of law and employee covered:

1. Statutory rate and wage board law for:

Men, women, and minors

Connecticut
District of Columbia
Massachusetts
New Hampshire
New Jersey[3]
New York
Pennsylvania
Puerto Rico
Rhode Island
Washington[3]

2. Statutory rate law only for:

Men, women, and minors

Alaska
Arkansas
Delaware
Hawaii
Idaho
Maine
Maryland
Nebraska
Nevada
New Mexico
North Carolina
(16 to 65 years)
South Dakota
(14 years and over)
Vermont
West Virginia

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*Since this publication was prepared, Texas enacted a minimum wage law, effective February 1, 1970, covering men, women, and minors.

[2] No minimum rates in effect.

[3] Wage orders applicable to women and minors only.

Men and women
Indiana (18 years and over)
Michigan (18 to 65 years)
Oklahoma (18 to 65 years)
Oregon (18 years and over)
Wyoming (18 years and over)

3. Wage board law only for:

Men, women, and minors
Kentucky
North Dakota

Women and minors
Arizona
California
Colorado
Illinois[4]
Kansas[4]
Minnesota
Ohio
Utah
Wisconsin

Females
Louisiana[4]

Overtime Compensation

Sixteen States, the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico have laws or regulations—usually part of the minimum wage program—that provide for overtime compensation. These generally require the payment of premium rates for hours worked in excess of a daily and/or weekly standard. Premium pay requirements are both a deterrent to excessive hours of work and an impetus to the equitable distribution of work.

106. Statutory Requirements

Statutes of 10 States and the District of Columbia require the payment of 1½ times the regular rate of pay after a specified number of daily and/or weekly hours. Generally these statutes are applicable to men, women, and minors. The following list of jurisdictions with statutory overtime rates shows the hours after which premium pay is required:

	Daily standard	*Weekly standard*
Alaska	8	40
Connecticut	--	42; 40 (7/1/69)
District of Columbia	--	40
Hawaii	--	40
Idaho[5]	8	48
Maine	--	48
Massachusetts	--	40
New Jersey	--	40
Pennsylvania	--	42; 40 (2/1/69)
Vermont	--	48
West Virginia	--	48

[4] No minimum rates in effect.

[5] The premium pay requirement is separate from the minimum wage program and is applicable to women only.

107. Wage Order Requirements

Wage orders issued as part of the minimum wage program in 6 States and Puerto Rico require the payment of premium rates for overtime. Generally the orders provide for payment of 1½ times, or double, either the minimum rate or the regular rate of pay for hours in excess of a daily and/or weekly standard. The following list of jurisdictions with wage orders that require overtime rates (for men, women, and minors unless otherwise indicated) shows the premium rate established and the hours after which the premium is payable. Most of the jurisdictions have issued a number of wage orders with varying standards for different occupations. The one shown is the highest standard of general application.

	Rate	*Daily standard*	*Weekly standard*
California[6]	1½ times the regular rate	8	40
	Double the regular rate	12; 8 on 7th day	
Colorado[6]	1½ times the regular rate	8	40
Kentucky[7]	1½ times the minimum rate	---	44
New York	1½ times basic minimum rate	---	40
Oregon[6]	1½ times the minimum rate	8	40
Rhode Island	1½ times the minimum rate	---	45
Puerto Rico	Double the regular rate	8	44

Equal Pay

Thirty-one States have equal pay laws applicable to private employment that prohibit discrimination in rate of pay based on sex. They establish the principle of payment of a wage rate based on the job and not on the sex of the worker. Five States with no equal pay law have fair employment practices laws and the District of Columbia, a regulation, that prohibit discrimination in rate of pay or compensation based on sex.

108. Historical Record of Equal Pay Legislation

Public attention was first sharply focused on equal pay for women during World War I when large numbers of women were employed in war industries on the same jobs as men, and the National War Labor Board enforced the policy of "no wage discrimination against women on the grounds of sex." In 1919, 2 States—

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[6] Applicable to women and minors only. In California minors under 18 are limited to 8 hours a day, 6 days a week.

[7] Since the issuance of wage orders applicable to women and minors only, statutory coverage of the wage board program has been extended to men.

Michigan and Montana—enacted equal pay legislation. For nearly 25 years these were the only States with such laws.

Progress in the equal pay field was made during World War II when again large numbers of women entered the labor force, many of them in jobs previously held by men. Government agencies, employers, unions, organizations, and the general public were concerned with the removal of wage differentials as a means of furthering the war effort.

During the period 1943–45 equal pay laws were enacted in 4 States—Illinois, Massachusetts, New York, and Washington.

In the next 4 years 6 States—California, Connecticut, Maine, New Hampshire, Pennsylvania, and Rhode Island—and Alaska passed equal pay laws.

New Jersey enacted an equal pay law in 1952. Arkansas, Colorado, and Oregon passed such legislation in 1955.

In 1957 California amended its equal pay law to strengthen existing legislation, and Nebraska adopted a resolution endorsing the policy of equal pay for equal work without discrimination based on sex and urging the adoption of this policy by all employers in the State. Hawaii, Ohio, and Wyoming passed equal pay laws in 1959.

In 1961 Wisconsin amended its fair employment practices act to prohibit discrimination because of sex and to provide that a differential in pay between employees, when based in good faith on any factor other than sex, is not prohibited.

In 1962 Arizona passed an equal pay law, and Michigan amended its law (which previously covered only manufacture or production of any article) to extend coverage to any employer of labor employing both males and females.

During 1963 Missouri enacted an equal pay law, and Vermont passed a fair employment practices law which also prohibits discrimination in rates of pay by reason of sex.

Also in 1963 the Federal Equal Pay Act was passed as an amendment to the Fair Labor Standards Act.

In 1965, 3 States—North Dakota, Oklahoma, and West Virginia—enacted equal pay laws, and 3 States with no equal pay law—Maryland, Nebraska, and Utah—passed fair employment practices laws which prohibit discrimination in compensation based on sex. Amendments in California, Maine, New York, and Rhode Island strengthened existing equal pay laws.

In 1966, 4 States—Georgia, Kentucky, Maryland, and South Dakota—enacted equal pay laws. Massachusetts enacted a law that provides equal pay for certain civil service employees.

In 1967, 2 States—Indiana and Nebraska—enacted equal pay laws. Indiana included its equal pay provision as part of the amendments to its minimum wage law.

109. Roster of Equal Pay States[8]

The 31 States with equal pay laws* are:

Alaska
Arizona
Arkansas
California
Colorado
Connecticut
Georgia
Hawaii
Illinois
Indiana[9]
Kentucky
Maine
Maryland
Massachusetts
Michigan
Missouri
Montana
Nebraska
New Hampshire
New Jersey
New York
North Dakota
Ohio
Oklahoma
Oregon
Pennsylvania
Rhode Island
South Dakota
Washington
West Virginia
Wyoming

Equal pay laws in Colorado, Georgia, Indiana, Kentucky, Maryland, Montana, Nebraska, North Dakota, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, and Washington are applicable to public as well as private employment. (A Massachusetts law contains an elective equal pay provision, applicable to employees of cities or towns who are in the classified civil service; and a Texas law requires equal pay for women in private employment.) In 21 States the laws apply to most types of privates employment. In general those States specifying exemptions exclude agricultural labor and domestic service. The Illinois law applies only to manufacturing.

Fair Employment Practices

110. Roster of Fair Employment Practices States

Thirty-seven States, the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico have fair employment practices laws, but only 15 of the States and the District of Columbia include a prohibition against discrimination in employment based on sex. Prior to the enactment of title VII of the Federal Civil Rights Act of 1964, the laws of only 2 States—Hawaii and Wisconsin—prohibited sex discrimination in employment.

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*Since this publication was prepared, 4 States—Florida, Idaho, Minnesota, and Nevada—enacted equal pay laws.

[8] Fair employment practices acts in 5 States with no equal pay law—Idaho, Nevada, Utah, Vermont, and Wisconsin—prohibit discrimination in rate of pay or compensation based on sex. In the District of Columbia, there is a regulation prohibiting discrimination based on sex.

[9] Indiana included an equal pay provision in its amendments to the minimum wage law.

The 39 jurisdictions with fair employment practices laws are:

Alaska
Arizona
California
Colorado
Connecticut
Delaware
District of Columbia
Hawaii
Idaho
Illinois
Indiana
Iowa
Kansas
Kentucky
Maine
Maryland
Massachusetts
Michigan
Minnesota
Missouri
Montana
Nebraska
Nevada
New Hampshire
New Jersey
New Mexico
New York
Ohio
Oklahoma (eff. 5/16/69)
Oregon
Pennsylvania
Puerto Rico
Rhode Island
Utah
Vermont
Washington
West Virginia
Wisconsin
Wyoming

The 16 jurisdictions whose fair employment practices laws prohibit discrimination in employment based on sex* are:

Arizona
Connecticut
District of Columbia
Hawaii
Idaho
Maryland
Massachusetts
Michigan
Missouri
Nebraska
Nevada
New York
Oklahoma (eff. 5/16/69)
Utah
Wisconsin
Wyoming

In 2 additional States—Alaska and Vermont—the fair employment practices law prohibits discrimination based on sex, in wages only. In a third State—Colorado—the law prohibits discrimination based on sex only in apprenticeship, on-the-job training, or other occupational instruction, training, or retraining programs.

Hours of Work

The first enforceable law regulating the hours of employment of women became effective in Massachusetts in 1879. Today 46 States, the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico have established standards governing at least one aspect of women's hours of employment; that is, maximum daily or weekly hours, day of rest, meal and rest periods, and nightwork. Some of these standards have been established by statute; others, by minimum wage or industrial welfare order.

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*Since this publication was prepared, 6 States—Alaska, Colorado, Minnesota, New Mexico, Oregon, and Pennsylvania—enacted laws prohibiting discrimination in employment based on sex.

111. *Maximum Daily and Weekly Hours*

Forty-one States and the District of Columbia regulate the number of daily and/or weekly hours of employment for women in one or more industries. These limitations have been established either by statute or by order. Nine States—Alabama, Alaska, Delaware, Florida, Hawaii, Idaho, Indiana, Iowa, and West Virginia—and Puerto Rico do not have such laws; however, laws or wage orders in 5 of these jurisdictions—Alaska, Hawaii, Idaho, Puerto Rico, and West Virginia—require the payment of premium rates for time worked over specified hours.

Hours standards for 3 of the 41 States—Georgia, Montana, and South Carolina—are applicable to both men and women. In addition there are 3 States—New Mexico, North Carolina, and Washington—which cover men and women in some industries and women only in others.

The standard setting the fewest maximum hours which may be worked, in one or more industries, is shown for each of the 41 States and the District of Columbia.

	Maximum hours	
	Daily	*Weekly*
Arizona	8	48
Arkansas	8	(10)
California	8	48
Colorado	8	--
Connecticut	8	48
District of Columbia	8	48
Georgia	10	60
Illinois	8	48
Kansas [11]	8	48
Kentucky	10	60
Louisiana	8	48
Maine	9	50
Maryland	10	60
Massachusetts	9	48
Michigan	9	54
Minnesota	--	54
Mississippi	10	60
Missouri	9	54
Montana	8	48
Nebraska	9	54
Nevada	8	48
New Hampshire	10	48
New Jersey	10	54
New Mexico	8	48
New York	8	48
North Carolina	9	48
North Dakota	8½	48
Ohio	8	48
Oklahoma	9	54
Oregon [11]	8	40
Pennsylvania	10	48
Rhode Island	9	48
South Carolina	8	40
South Dakota	10	54
Tennessee	10	50
Texas	9	54
Utah	8	48
Vermont	9	50
Virginia	9	48
Washington	8	48
Wisconsin	9	50
Wyoming [12]	8	48

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[10] A 6-day week limitation provides, in effect, for 48-hour workweek.

[11] Maximum hours standards set by Labor Commissioner under minimum wage program.

[12] If the 8 hours of work are spread over more than 12 hours in a day, time and one-half must be paid for each of the 8 hours worked after the 12-hour period.

As the table shows, in one or more industries:

2 States have a maximum of 8 hours a day, 40 hours a week.

23 States and the District of Columbia have set maximum hours of 8 a day, 48 a week, or both.

8 States have a maximum 9-hour day, 50- or 54-hour week. (This includes Michigan with an average 9-hour, maximum 10-hour, day.)

Minnesota has no daily hours limitation in its statute, but limits weekly hours to 54.

7 States have a maximum 10-hour day, 50- to 60-hour week.

However, many of these hours laws contain exemptions or exceptions from their limitations. For example:

Work is permitted in excess of the maximum hours limitations for at least some employees in 16 States if they receive overtime compensation: Arizona, Arkansas, California, Colorado, Kansas, Nevada, New Mexico, North Carolina, Oklahoma, Oregon, Rhode Island, South Carolina, Texas, Virginia, Wisconsin, and Wyoming.

4 States—North Carolina, Oregon, South Carolina, and Virginia—exempt workers who are paid in accordance with the overtime requirements of, or who are subject to, the FLSA, the Federal minimum wage and hour law of most general application. Arizona exempts employers operating in compliance with the FLSA, provided 1½ times the regular rate is paid for hours over 8 a day. California permits airline and railroad personnel and women protected by the FLSA, with some industry exceptions, to work up to 10 hours a day and 58 hours a week if they are paid 1½ times their regular rate for hours over 8 a day and 40 a week. Kansas exempts most firms meeting the wage, overtime, and recordkeeping requirements of the FLSA or comparable standards set by collective bargaining agreements. New Mexico exempts employees in interstate commerce whose hours are regulated by acts of Congress.

1 State—Maryland—exempts employment subject to a bona fide collective bargaining agreement.

State agencies in Arkansas, Kansas, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, Oregon, Pennsylvania, and Wisconsin have broad authority to permit work in excess of the maximum hours limitations on a case-by-case basis; to vary hours restrictions by industry or occupation; or to regulate hours by requiring premium pay for overtime. Premium pay for overtime work is required by law or order regulating hours in Arkansas,

Kansas, Oregon, and Wisconsin. The minimum wage laws or orders of Massachusetts, Oregon, and Pennsylvania require premium pay for overtime work (see secs. 106 and 107).

28 more States have specific exceptions to the hours restrictions for emergencies, seasonal peaks, national defense, and other reasons.

Some or all women employed in executive, administrative, and professional positions are exempt from hours laws limitations in 26 States and the District of Columbia.

Since 1963, 16 States—Arizona, California, Colorado, Illinois, Kansas, Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan, Missouri, Nebraska, New York, North Carolina, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Virginia, and Washington—and the District of Columbia have modified their maximum hours laws or orders one or more times to permit work beyond the limits established by the maximum hours laws under regulated conditions, to exempt additional groups of workers from hours restrictions, or to establish administrative procedures for varying hours limitations. One State—Delaware—eliminated hours restrictions altogether.

In Michigan the State Occupational Safety Standards Commission has promulgated a standard which removes the limitations on women's daily and weekly hours of work, effective February 15, 1969, subject to modification by the State legislature.*

112. Day of Rest

Twenty States, the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico have established a 6-day maximum workweek for women employed in some or all industries. In 8 of these jurisdictions—California, Connecticut, Illinois, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, New York, Puerto Rico, and Wisconsin—this standard is applicable to both men and women. Jurisdictions that provide for a 6-day maximum workweek are:

Arizona
Arkansas
California
Connecticut
District of Columbia
Illinois
Kansas
Louisiana
Massachusetts
Nevada
New Hampshire
New Jersey
New York
North Carolina
North Dakota
Ohio
Oregon
Pennsylvania
Puerto Rico
Utah
Washington
Wisconsin

Of the remaining 30 States, 20 have laws that prohibit specified employment or activities on Sunday:

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*Since preparation of this publication, a court case brought about reinstatement of the limitations.

Alabama
Florida
Georgia
Idaho
Indiana
Kentucky
Maine
Maryland
Mississippi
Missouri
New Mexico
Oklahoma
Rhode Island
South Carolina
South Dakota
Tennessee
Texas
Vermont
Virginia
West Virginia

113. Meal Period

Twenty-three States, the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico provide that meal periods, varying from 20 minutes to 1 hour in duration, must be allowed women employed in some or all industries. In 3 States—Indiana, Nebraska, and New York—these provisions apply to men as well as women. The length of the meal period is provided by statute, order, or regulation in 25 jurisdictions:

Arkansas
California
Colorado
District of Columbia
Indiana
Kansas
Louisiana
Maine
Maryland
Massachusetts
Nebraska
Nevada
New Mexico
New York
North Carolina
North Dakota
Ohio
Oregon
Pennsylvania
Puerto Rico
Rhode Island
Utah
Washington
West Virginia
Wisconsin

Combining rest period and meal period provisions, Kentucky requires that before and after the regularly scheduled lunch period (duration not specified) rest periods shall be granted females; and in Wyoming females employed in specified establishments who are required to be on their feet continuously must have two paid rest periods, one before and one after the lunch hour.

114. Rest Period

Twelve States and Puerto Rico[13] have provided for specific rest periods (as distinct from a meal period) for women workers The statutes in Alaska, Kentucky, Nevada, and Wyoming cover a variety of industries (in Alaska and Wyoming, applicable only to women standing continuously); laws in New York and Pennsylvania apply to elevator operators not provided with seating facilities. Rest periods in one or more industries are required by wage orders in Arizona, California, Colorado, Oregon, Puerto Rico, Utah, and Washington. Most of the provisions are for a 10-minute rest period within each half day of work.

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[13] Rest period provision in Puerto Rico applies also to men.

In addition, in Arkansas manufacturing establishments operating on a 24-hour schedule may, when necessary, be exempt from the meal period provision if females are granted 10 minutes for each of two paid rest periods and provision is made for them to eat at their work; and the North Dakota Manufacturing Order prohibits the employment of women for more than 2 hours without a rest period (duration not specified).

115. Nightwork

In 18 States and Puerto Rico nightwork for adult women is prohibited and/or regulated in certain industries or occupations.

Nine States and Puerto Rico prohibit nightwork for adult women in certain occupations or industries or under specified conditions:

Connecticut
Kansas
Massachusetts
Nebraska
New Jersey
New York
North Dakota
Ohio
Puerto Rico
Washington

In North Dakota and Washington the prohibition applies only to elevator operators; in Ohio, only to taxicab drivers.

In 9 other States, as well as in several of the jurisdictions that prohibit nightwork in specified industries or occupations, the employment of adult women at night is regulated either by maximum hour provisions or by specified standards of working conditions. For example, in 1 State women and minors are limited to 8 hours a night.

California
Illinois
New Hampshire
New Mexico
Oregon
Pennsylvania
Rhode Island
Utah
Wisconsin

Arizona and the District of Columbia prohibit the employment of females under 21 years of age in night messenger service; the Arizona law is applicable also to males under 21.

Other Labor Legislation

116. Industrial Homework

Nineteen States and Puerto Rico have industrial homework laws or regulations:

California
Connecticut
Hawaii
Illinois
Indiana
Maryland
Massachusetts
Michigan
Missouri
New Jersey
New York
Ohio
Oregon
Pennsylvania
Puerto Rico
Rhode Island
Tennessee
Texas
West Virginia
Wisconsin

These regulations apply to all persons, except in Oregon, where the provisions apply to women and minors only.

In addition, the Alaska and Washington minimum wage and hour laws authorize the issuance of rules and regulations restricting or prohibiting industrial homework where necessary to safeguard minimum wage rates prescribed in the laws.

117. Employment Before and After Childbirth

Six States and Puerto Rico prohibit the employment of women in one or more industries or occupations immediately before and/or after childbirth. These standards are established by statute or by minimum wage or welfare orders. Women may not be employed in—

Connecticut	4 weeks before and 4 weeks after childbirth
Massachusetts	4 weeks before and 4 weeks after childbirth
Missouri	3 weeks before and 3 weeks after childbirth
New York	4 weeks after childbirth
Puerto Rico	4 weeks before and 4 weeks after childbirth
Vermont	2 weeks before and 4 weeks after childbirth
Washington[14]	4 months before and 6 weeks after childbirth

In addition to prohibiting employment, Puerto Rico requires the employer to pay the working mother one-half of her regular wage or salary during an 8-week period and provides for job security during the required absence.

Rhode Island's Temporary Disability Insurance Act provides that women workers covered by the act who are unemployed because of sickness resulting from pregnancy are entitled to cash benefits for maternity leave for a 14-week period beginning the sixth week prior to the week of expected childbirth, or the week childbirth occurs if it is more than 6 weeks prior to the expected birth.

In New Jersey the Temporary Disability Benefits Act provides that women workers to whom the act applies are entitled to cash payments for disability existing during the 4 weeks before and 4 weeks following childbirth.

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[14] Standard established by minimum wage orders. Some orders provide that a special permit may be granted for continued employment upon employer's request and with doctor's certificate.

Also, the Oregon Mercantile and Sanitation and Physical Welfare Orders recommend that an employer should not employ a female at any work during the 6 weeks preceding and the 4 weeks following the birth of her child, unless recommended by a licensed medical authority.

118. Occupational Limitations

Twenty-six States have laws or regulations that prohibit the employment of adult women in specified occupations or industries or under certain working conditions which are considered hazardous or injurious to health and safety. In 17 of these States the prohibition applies to women's employment in or about mines. Clerical or similar work is excepted from the prohibition in approximately half of these States. Nine States prohibit women from mixing, selling, or dispensing alcoholic beverages for on-premises consumption, and 1 State—Georgia—prohibits their employment in retail liquor stores. (In addition, a Florida statute authorizes the city of Tampa to prohibit females from soliciting customers to buy alcoholic beverages.)

The following States have occupational limitations applicable to—

Mines

Alabama
Arizona
Arkansas
Colorado
Illinois
Indiana
Maryland
Missouri
New York
Ohio
Oklahoma
Pennsylvania
Utah
Virginia
Washington
Wisconsin
Wyoming

Establishments serving alcoholic beverages

Alaska
California
Connecticut
Illinois[15]
Indiana
Kentucky
Ohio
Pennsylvania
Rhode Island

Eleven States prohibit the employment of women in other places or occupations, or under certain conditions:

Arizona—In occupations requiring constant standing.
Colorado—Working around coke ovens.
Massachusetts—Working on cores more than 2 cubic feet or 60 pounds.

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[15] Illinois State law empowers city and county governments to prohibit by general ordinance or resolution.

Michigan—Handling harmful substances; in foundries, except with approval of the Department of Labor.
Minnesota—Placing cores in or out of ovens; cleaning moving machinery.
Missouri—Cleaning or working between moving machinery.
New York—Coremaking, or in connection with coremaking, in a room in which the oven is in operation.
Ohio—As crossing watchman, section hand, express driver, metal molder, bellhop, gas- or electric-meter reader; in shoeshining parlors, bowling alleys as pinsetters, poolrooms; in delivery service on motor-propelled vehicles of over 1-ton capacity; in operating freight or baggage elevators if the doors are not automatically or semi-automatically controlled; in baggage and freight handling, by means of handtrucks, trucking and handling heavy materials of any kind; in blast furnaces, smelters, and quarries except in offices thereof.
Pennsylvania—In dangerous or injurious occupations.
Washington—As bellhop.
Wisconsin—In dangerous or injurious occupations.

The majority of the States with occupational limitations for adult women also have prohibitory legislation for persons under 21 years. In addition, 10 States have occupational limitations for persons under 21 years only. Most of these limitations apply to the serving of liquor and to the driving of taxicabs, schoolbuses, or public vehicles; others prohibit the employment of females under 21 years in jobs demanding constant standing or as messenger, bellhop, or caddy.

119. Seating and Weightlifting

A number of jurisdictions, through statutes, minimum wage orders, and other regulations, have established employment standards for women relating to plant facilities such as seats, lunchrooms, dressing and rest rooms, and toilet rooms, and to weightlifting. Only the seating and weightlifting provisions are included in this summary.

Seating.—Forty-five States, the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico have seating laws or orders; all but 1—the Florida law—apply exclusively to women. Delaware, Hawaii, Illinois, Maryland, and Mississippi have no seating laws or orders.

Weightlifting.—Ten States and Puerto Rico have statutes, rules, regulations, and/or orders which specify the maximum weight women employees may lift, carry, or lift and carry. Following are the standards established for weightlifting and carrying in the 11 jurisdictions. Some States have standards varying by occupation or industry and are, therefore, listed more than once.

Any occupation: "excessive weight" in Oregon; 30 pounds lifting and 15 pounds carrying in Utah; 35 percent of body weight, or 25 pounds where repetitive lifting in Alaska; 25 in Ohio; 40 in Massachusetts; 44 in Puerto Rico; 50 pounds lifting and 10 pounds carrying up and down stairways in California.

Foundries and corerooms: 25 pounds in Maryland, Massachusetts, Minnesota, and New York.

Specified occupations or industries (by orders): 25 pounds in California; 25 to 50 in Oregon; 35 pounds and "excessive weight" in Washington.

8

POLITICAL AND CIVIL STATUS OF WOMEN

as of January 1, 1969

New Trends

Progress continues to be made in the direction of revising outmoded laws and practices which differentiate between men and women unfairly and unrealistically. The philosophy favoring the dominance of the husband in the marital relation has generally been replaced by the idea that both parties have rights and responsibilities in marriage, and that while the wife is entitled to a measure of legal protection she does have responsibilities.

The status of women has enjoyed a continuous improvement since the 19th century, when the first Married Women's Property Acts were passed. These first legal steps toward releasing a married woman's property and property rights from her husband's control started a trend, which has continued over the years, to equalize married women's rights with those of married men in the enjoyment and disposition of property. A married woman's citizenship no longer automatically follows that of her husband—she neither gains U.S. citizenship by marriage to a citizen of the United States, nor loses her U.S. citizenship by marriage to an alien. The adoption of the 19th amendment to the Constitution, which gave both married and single women the right to vote, marked the beginning of the political emancipation of women and established the basis for them to participate fully in the political life of the country.

More recently, attention has been given to eliminating other artificial barriers which kept many Americans, especially Negro men and women, from the polls. Women slowly have been catching up with men in terms of equal eligibility for jury service—an important privilege and responsibility of all citizens—by the enactment of laws which base qualifications for, and disqualifications and exemptions from, jury service on factors other than sex.

Commissions on the status of women have been active in recommending and supporting programs to improve the civil and political status of women.[1] As of January 1, 1969, almost all of the commissions had made interim or final reports on a wide range of subjects, including property rights, marriage and divorce law, consortium, homestead law, and domicile law.

Political Status

120. Citizenship

Citizenship in the United States is acquired in the same way by men and women; that is, by birth within the domain, by birth abroad of a parent who is a citizen, or by naturalization. Mothers as well as fathers confer citizenship on their minor children.

A married woman's citizenship does not automatically follow that of her husband. An alien wife may become a citizen whether or not her alien husband desires or qualifies for that privilege. When a woman citizen marries an alien, she retains her citizenship until she renounces it by declaring allegiance to another government.

121. Voting and Public Office

Federal elections.—Women and men have equal rights of suffrage in the election of Federal Government officials and on propostals for change in the Federal Constitution.

Qualifications for election or appointment to posts in the executive and legislative branches of the Federal Government or for appointment to the judiciary are the same for women and men.

State elections.—Women and men have equal rights of suffrage in the election of State and local officials and in the determination of public issues within the State.

Qualifications for election to State and local government positions are the same for women and men.

Civil service positions.—Positions in both Federal and State civil service are generally open to women who qualify. Through fair employment practices laws or executive policy statements, some States prohibit sex discrimination in hiring, promotion, and training in public employment.

In Federal employment a policy developed as a result of the hiring statute of 1870, which resulted in sex discrimination in hiring and promotion, was reversed on June 4, 1962, when the Attorney General declared this practice unjustified and invalid.

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[1] See Part III for additional information on activities of commissions on the status of women.

Subsequently a Presidential directive of July 23, 1962, required Federal agency heads to fill positions without reference to sex where experience and physical requirements were met, and the Civil Service Commission issued appropriate rules and regulations to implement this directive. In order to preclude any possibility of reversion to the previous policy, in 1965 Congress repealed the 1870 law.

In 1967 the President signed Executive Order 11375, which specifically prohibits discrimination on the basis of sex in Federal and Federal contract employment. This order was a direct outgrowth of the recommendations of the Federal Woman's Award Study Group created by the President in 1966 to examine and make suggestions with respect to careers for women in the executive branch. The Study Group is composed of outstanding women in Federal service who have received special recognition for their contributions. The group recommended that in order to increase the number of women in professional, administrative, and technical positions in the Federal Government, the Civil Service Commission: develop a reporting system to provide necessary data for an appraisal of the position of women in the Federal Government; review examination and qualification requirements with a view toward providing more flexibility in examinations and insuring appropriate credit for participation in community, cultural, social service, and professional association activities; and develop a program to recruit women for part-time employment.

Courts—jury service.—Since the enactment of the Civil Rights Act of 1957 removing the disqualification of women for service on Federal juries in all States, many States have equalized laws affecting service on State grand and petit juries. The Federal Jury Selection and Service Act of 1968, which provides for selection of Federal juries at random from a fair cross section of the community and specifically prohibits exclusion because of race, color, religion, sex, national origin, or economic status, implements the 1957 Civil Rights Act.

Women are now eligible by law to serve on State juries in all 50 States and on juries in the District of Columbia and Puerto Rico. The last 3 States amended their laws since 1966 to permit women to serve. In *White* v. *Crook* (251 F. Supp. 401 (1966)), the Alabama law excluding women from State juries was declared unconstitutional by a Federal court on the ground that the State law denied equal protection to women in violation of the 14th amendment. Thereafter the legislature enacted a law permitting women to serve on State juries.

In 1966 South Carolina voters approved a constitutional amendment to permit women to serve on State juries. The amendment was ratified by the General Assembly in 1957. In 1968 the Mississippi legislature amended the law which barred women from serving on State juries, so that women may now serve on the same basis as men.

In 28 States[2] women serve under the same terms and conditions as men, with the same qualifications, disqualifications, and exemptions. In 22 States and the District of Columbia, women may be excused on grounds not available to men. Of these, 11 States[3] permit a woman to be excused solely on the basis of her sex. An additional 10 States,[4] the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico permit women to claim an exemption because of child care or family responsibilities. Rhode Island further provides that women shall be included for jury service only when courthouse facilities permit. In 1967 Florida and New Hampshire removed their requirement that women register before they may be considered for jury service. Louisiana is now the only State with this requirement.

122. Domicile

A person's domicile is determined by the coexistence of physical presence and intent to reside permanently in a particular place. Residence is mere physical presence. The concept of domicile is important since many legal rights and duties attach to it, e.g., the right to vote and run for public office and the duty to pay taxes. As a general rule, the domicile of a married woman is deemed, by operation of law, to be that of her husband. If the husband changes his domicile and makes reasonable provision for his wife at the new domicile, she is under a duty to follow him, unless to do so would be a recognized hardship. However, a married woman may establish a separate domicile when the interests of husband and wife are hostile and result in a separation of the parties. In addition, an increasing number of jurisdictions are permitting a wife to establish a separate domicile when the marital unity has been breached and the parties are living separately by mutual consent or acquiescence. In such cases separate existence, interest, and rights are recognized.

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[2] Alaska, Arizona, California, Colorado, Delaware, Hawaii, Idaho, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kentucky, Maine, Maryland, Michigan, Mississippi, Montana, Nebraska, New Jersey, New Mexico, North Dakota, Ohio, Oregon, Pennsylvania, South Dakota, Vermont, Washington, West Virginia, Wisconsin.

[3] Alabama, Arkansas, Georgia, Kansas, Minnesota, Missouri, Nevada, New York, Rhode Island, Tennessee, Virginia.

[4] Connecticut, Florida, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, North Carolina, Oklahoma, South Carolina, Texas, Utah, Wyoming.

However, problems may arise in this area of the law for the married woman whose marriage is intact but who for some good and valid reason has a residence separate from that of her husband. In recognition of the inequities that may result from the rigid application of the general rule, an increasing number of States are permitting a married woman to have a separate domicile, either for all purposes or for specified purposes. At present, 5 States—Alaska, Arkansas, Delaware, Hawaii, and Wisconsin—permit a married woman to establish a separate domicile for all purposes. In addition, 3 States[5] permit a separate domicile for eligibility to public office; 2 States[6] permit a separate domicile for jury service; 3 States[7] recognize a separate domicile for probate; and 13 States[8] permit a separate domicile for voting.

Civil Status—Family Relations

123. Marriage

State laws establishing marriage requirements generally do not make distinctions based on sex except in setting minimum ages—usually lower for women than for men. When parental consent is not required, the minimum age for women is 18 years in 35 States[9] and the District of Columbia; it is 19, 20, or 21 in the remaining jurisdictions. Girls may marry with parental consent at the age of 16 years in 38 States[10] and the District of Columbia, at age 15 in 5 States,[11] and at age 14 in 4 States.[12] The minimum age in Washington is 17 years; in Kansas, 18 years. In New Hampshire a girl who marries below the age of 18 must have both the consent of her parents and that of the court. All but 4 States[13] require a premarital health examination for both applicants for a marriage license. In these 4 jurisdictions the health examination is not required for either applicant.

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[5] Maine, New Jersey, New York.

[6] Maine, New Jersey.

[7] California, Florida, New Jersey.

[8] California, Connecticut, Florida, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Maine, Massachusetts, Michigan, New Jersey, New York, North Dakota, Wyoming.

[9] Alabama, Alaska, Arizona, Arkansas, California, Colorado, Delaware, Idaho, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Maine, Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Montana, Nevada, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New Mexico, New York, North Carolina, North Dakota, Oklahoma, Oregon, South Carolina, South Dakota, Texas, Utah, Vermont, Washington, Wisconsin.

[10] Alaska, Arizona, Arkansas, California, Colorado, Connecticut, Delaware, Florida, Georgia, Hawaii, Idaho, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maine, Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, Montana, Nebraska, Nevada, New Jersey, New Mexico, New York, North Carolina, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, South Dakota, Tennessee, Vermont, Virginia, West Virginia, Wisconsin, Wyoming.

[11] Mississippi, Missouri, North Dakota, Oklahoma, Oregon.

[12] Alabama, South Carolina, Texas, Utah.

[13] Maryland, Minnesota, Nevada, South Carolina.

The landmark decision of the U.S. Supreme Court in *Loving v. Virginia* (388 U.S. 1 (1967)) held Virginia's miscegenation law unconstitutional as a denial of equal protection of the laws and a deprivation of due process of law, in violation of the 14th amendment to the Constitution. This decision appears to have invalidated laws in 15 other States[14] which prohibit marriage between persons of different races.

124. Divorce

All States and the District of Columbia permit divorce on more than one ground. For the most part grounds for divorce are the same for husband and wife, although more than half the States recognize to the wife and at least 13 States[15] permit a man to seek divorce to the wife and at least 13 States[15] permit a man to seek a divorce on the basis of his wife's pregnancy by another man at the time of their marriage.

Adultery is recognized as a ground for divorce in all States and the District of Columbia. The most common other grounds for divorce are desertion, separation for a specified period, cruelty, alcoholism, impotency, felony conviction, and insanity. Some jurisdictions permit divorce on the grounds of drug addiction or commission of an infamous crime.

Forty-eight States and the District of Columbia have laws which permit the award of permanent alimony to the wife in the discretion of the court when divorce is granted. (In North Carolina alimony is limited to specified circumstances. Pennsylvania and Texas make no general provisions for alimony on final decree, although in Pennsylvania the court is empowered to decree alimony for the support of either an insane wife or an insane husband. In addition to Pennsylvania, in at least 6 States[16] with no general provision for alimony to the husband, the wife may be held liable for the support of the husband in case of divorce on the basis of his mental illness.

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[14] Alabama, Arkansas, Delaware, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, Missouri, North Carolina, Oklahoma, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, West Virginia. (Maryland repealed its miscegenation law in early 1967 prior to the Supreme Court's decision.)

[15] Alabama, Arizona, Georgia, Iowa, Kentucky, Mississippi, Missouri, New Mexico, North Carolina, Oklahoma, Tennessee, Virginia, Wyoming.

[16] Connecticut, Delaware, Kansas, Mississippi, Nebraska, Wyoming.

Twelve States [17] may allow alimony to either spouse; in addition, Massachusetts and New Hampshire allow the husband a portion of the wife's estate in the nature of alimony. The statutes of Colorado and Virginia are broad enough to apply to either spouse, but in actual practice alimony may be limited to the wife since in neither State does there appear to be a judicial determination permitting alimony to the husband.

125. Parent and Child

Under the common law, the father was the preferred natural guardian of the person of a minor child and as such had the care, custody, control, and responsibility for the education of the child. This rule has been abrogated by statute in the majority of States to provide that the natural guardianship of a minor child is vested jointly in both parents. Seven States [18] presently provide by statute that the father is the preferred natural guardian of a minor child.

State laws usually provide that when a minor becomes the owner of a specified amount of property a guardian of the minor's estate must be appointed to manage and conserve the estate. Six States [19] and the District of Columbia specify by statute that the father is preferred when it is necessary to appoint a guardian of the estate of a minor.

If a marriage is broken by divorce or legal separation, generally neither parent has any legal advantage over the other as to custody of a minor child; the best interests of the child guide the court's disposition of custody. If there is a contest between the parents regarding custody or guardianship of a minor child, at least 8 States [20] provide by statute that, all other things being equal, the mother has a preferred right if the child is of tender years, and the father has a preferred right if the child is of an age to require education or preparation for labor or business.

Unmarried parents.—An unmarried mother is considered the natural guardian and entitled to the custody of her child. The father becomes the natural guardian only if he legally acknowledges his relationship to the child or marries the mother.

Inheritance by parents from children.—No distinction exists between the rights of the father and those of the mother to inherit from legitimate children. Most States allow an unmarried mother to inherit from her child.

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[17] Alaska, California, Hawaii, Illinois, Iowa, North Carolina, North Dakota, Ohio, Oklahoma, Oregon, Utah, West Virginia.

[18] Alaska, Georgia, Louisiana, New Mexico, North Carolina, Oklahoma, Texas.

[19] Alabama, Georgia, Louisiana, Montana, New Mexico, North Dakota.

[20] Arizona, California, Michigan, Montana, North Dakota, Oklahoma, South Dakota, Utah.

126. Family Support

Notwithstanding the legal emancipation of women and their increased participation in the labor force, in all States a husband is liable for the support of his wife. In most States a wife is responsible for the support of her husband when he is unable to support himself. Nearly all States make both the mother and father liable for the support of their legitimate minor child; however, the liability of the mother is frequently secondary. In the 8 States[21] with community property laws of ownership between husband and wife, the common estate of husband and wife is liable for debts for family support. In addition, most States specify that children are liable for the support of needy parents under specified circumstances. A money judgment stemming from duties of support may be enforced against either the person or his property.

Unmarried parents.—The mother is primarily liable for support of her child born out of wedlock. Most States have legal procedures for establishing paternity. Until paternity is established or voluntarily assumed, the father has no legal obligation to support the child, or to contribute to the expenses of the mother at childbirth.

Uniform Reciprocal Enforcement of Support Act.—Uniform Reciprocal Enforcement of Support Acts are now in effect in all jurisdictions of the United States, following the 1957 law enacted by Congress for the District of Columbia. This legislation does not create new duties of support, but provides by reciprocal legislation for enforcement across State lines of support duties already existing. Each State applies its own law, but the act makes binding the support duty regardless of the presence or residence of the obligee. New judgments may be obtained, or existing judgments enforced from State to State under this legislation.

Enforcement of these laws by courts throughout the country has lightened the burden of welfare agencies to a large extent; and the civil rather than criminal emphasis has contributed to the preservation of the family, since it is thus easier for the parties to become reconciled.

One problem, however, has persisted to hamper the effective administration of these acts: that of finding the deserting party responsible for the support of his dependents. A New York law directs the State Department of Social Welfare to establish a central registry of records for locating deserting parents of children who are receiving or likely to need public assistance. The department is authorized to obtain information from other State agencies (e.g., motor vehicle and tax records) concerning the identity and whereabouts of deserting parents. Many other States permit responsible State agencies to request and receive information from the records of all other State agencies to assist in locating parents who have deserted their children or any other persons liable for support of dependents. Various Federal agencies are authorized to attempt to locate the parent responsible for support in certain circumstances where the children are eligible for assistance under the aid to families with dependent children program.

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[21] Arizona, California, Idaho, Louisiana, Nevada, New Mexico, Texas, Washington.

Civil Status—Property and Contract Law

127. Property

Property is broadly divided into two categories—personal and real (real estate and things permanently attached thereto). In property management and control, inheritance, and freedom of enjoyment of earnings, no distinction is made between the rights of unmarried women and unmarried men. However, there may be distinctions between rights of married and single women.

There are two different property systems within the United States—the community property system, which grew out of French and Spanish law, and the common law system, which developed from the English common law.

128. Ownership, Control, and Use of Property

Personal earnings.—Personal earnings of married women are made their separate property by specific statute in most of the States not having a community property law. Earnings are considered part of the community in the community property States. In 4 of these States—Arizona, Louisiana, Nevada, and New Mexico—the community property is managed and controlled by the husband, but the remaining 4—California, Idaho, Texas, and Washington—provide that the wife may control her earnings. In Texas a provision giving married women such right by vesting control over community property in the spouse who would have control had the property not become part of the community became effective January 1, 1968.

Real property owned separately.—Although a married woman has the power to contract with reference to her separate real property, a number of States—either directly or indirectly—restrict a married person's right to convey or encumber his or her separate real property. In 22 States[22] and the District of Columbia, where both the husband and wife have either curtesy, dower, or a statutory interest in the nature of dower in the spouse's property, it is necessary that either spouse join in the conveyance of the real estate belonging to the other spouse in order to bar this interest. This requirement may be of benefit to a married woman in that it can help prevent the dissipation of the assets of her spouse.

Six States[23] provide dower or a statutory interest in the nature of dower for a wife without giving her husband a similar interest in her property, thereby making it necessary for the wife to join in her husband's conveyance of his realty without subjecting her real estate to similar restrictions. Two States—Alabama and Forida—while not giving a husband a curtesy or statutory dower interest in the wife's property, specifically require him to join in the conveyance of his wife's property.

Recent enactments in this area include a 1967 amendment to Indiana law to remove a provision that a married woman could not convey her separate real property without the signature of her husband. And in the Texas amendments referred to earlier, the marital property law was changed to provide, among other things, for elimination of any inequality caused through use of the terms "husband" and "wife" by referring to "spouses," so that provisions for the husband and wife are identical. Texas amendments also provided for joint management of community property by husband and wife.

Real and personal property acquired by joint efforts after marriage.—Under the community property system, all property acquired after marriage is classified as either separate or community property. Separate property is under the control and management of the individual owning it, and in 7 of the 8 community property States the husband generally has control of the community property. In Texas each spouse now has control of that community property which he or she would have owned if a single person.

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[22] Delaware, Hawaii, Illinois, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Maine, Maryland, Minnesota, Nebraska, New Hampshire, New Jersey, North Carolina, Ohio, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, Tennessee, Vermont, Virginia, West Virginia, Wisconsin. (Also Missouri for all estates vested as of 1956, when the statutory dower law of 1939 was repealed.)

[23] Arkansas, Indiana, Michigan, Montana, South Carolina, Utah. (In Utah joinder of a wife to bar dower is necessary only if the wife is a resident of Utah.)

Under the common law system, all property is owned separately or jointly in accordance with the title to it, and control of the property depends upon the type of ownership under which it is held. Separate property belongs to one of the spouses and is under the exclusive control of that spouse. Joint property is that in which both spouses have an interest, and the control is generally shared.

Control of real estate depends upon the type of ownership under which it is held. Under the old common law, real estate conveyed or devised to a husband and wife created an estate by the entireties held by them as one person, with the husband entitled to all the rents, profits, and enjoyment thereof. Today, while the common law estate by the entireties may still be created in the District of Columbia and the majority of the 42 common law States, it is also generally possible for married persons to own real estate by some other form of ownership, under which each spouse is entitled to one-half of the rents, profits, and enjoyment of the property.

Personal property accumulated during marriage by the cooperative efforts of husband and wife is generally under the control of the husband, subject to certain restrictions; for example, in many States the husband cannot mortgage the family furniture without the wife's consent. The effect of this common law rule may be overcome by private agreement between the parties, or by a title or record (such as a bill of sale) establishing otherwise. It may be necessary for a court of equity to decide the ownership.

Disposition of property after death.—Married women may dispose of their separate property by will as freely as married men. The majority of States provide that, in the absence of a will, a widow or widower inherits from the deceased spouse in a similar manner. The surviving spouse's share of the estate generally depends on whether there are surviving issue, parents, or other next of kin.

In both common law and community property States, a surviving husband or wife generally receives all of the property separately owned by the deceased spouse if there are no descendants; one-half or one-third if there are descendants. In all the community property States, a wife receives her half of the community property. In 4 of these States—California, Idaho, Nevada, and New Mexico—she receives her husband's half; in 2—Arizona and Texas—she receives her husband's half if there are no descendants; and in the remaining 2—Louisiana and Washington—she receives his half if there are no descendants or parents. In the common law States, jointly owned property is divided according to the title.

129. *Contracts*

All States with a common law background recognize a married woman's legal capacity to contract her personal services in employment outside her home and her entitlement to earnings from such work without the formal consent of her husband. In the 8 community property States a married woman may contract with respect to her employment and earnings from such employment, but the earnings are considered part of the community property. (See sec. 128 for discussion of earnings.)

In most States a married woman may contract with respect to her separate property. However, in at least 3 States—Georgia, Idaho, and Kentucky—a married woman does not have the legal capacity to become a surety or a guarantor.

In 4 States—California, Florida, Nevada, and Pennsylvania—court sanction and, in some cases, the husband's consent, is required for a wife's legal venture into an independent business. In addition, Massachusetts requires a married woman or her husband to file a certificate with the city or town clerk's office in order to prevent the personal property of her business from being liable for her husband's debts.

Although married women in general may contract freely with third parties, transactions between husband and wife are still subject to legal limitations in many States. In some States such contracts are restricted by the general rule that controls the actions of persons occupying confidential relations with each other. In some States such contracts may be executed by a formal written document, and in others no authority exists to make such contracts.

Part III

Commissions on the Status of Women

COMMISSIONS ON THE STATUS OF WOMEN

Federal

The momentum generated by the activities of the President's Commission on the Status of Women was the force that resulted in the creation of State commissions on the status of women and the Interdepartmental Committee and Citizens' Advisory Council on the Status of Women, under which the social, professional, and legal interests of women have continued to receive attention.

The President's Commission on the Status of Women was established by President John F. Kennedy on December 14, 1961. The function of the Commission was to examine and recommend remedies for the prejudices and outmoded customs which, the President said, "act as barriers to the full realization of women's basic rights . . . ." The Commission and its seven committees studied a wide variety of problems affecting women's role in the economic, political, and cultural life of the Nation. Its recommendations were in its report, *American Women,* which was presented to the President on October 11, 1963.

Acting immediately on the recommendations of the Commission, President Kennedy signed Executive Order 11126 on November 1, 1963, establishing the Interdepartmental Committee on the Status of Women, now composed of six Secretaries of Departments, the Attorney General, the Chairman of the Civil Service Commission, the Chairman of the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, and the Director of the Office of Economic Opportunity, with the Secretary of Labor as chairman. The Executive order further established a Citizens' Advisory Council, composed of 20 private citizens appointed by the President for an indeterminate time.

The Committee and Council have sponsored four national conferences of commissions on the status of women. Beginning with a small 1-day conference attended by 87 State commission members in 1964, the conferences grew, as interest in the status of women and the number of commissions increased, to a 3-day meeting in 1968, with more than 400 participants. Leaders of national organizations attended, and the President, Vice President, Cabinet officers, Members of Congress, and leading citizens were on the program. The conferences gave impetus to the status of women movement throughout the Nation.

Four reports of progress on the status of women have been published.

In order to keep up with fast-moving events and to present advanced proposals to stimulate action and strengthen the progress of women, the Council set up task forces on family law and policy, health and welfare, labor standards, and social insurance and taxes. The task forces prepared reports and recommendations, and the reports have been published.

A brief summary of major task force recommendations follows:

Family Law and Policy

Declaring that marriage is an economic partnership, the task force recommended that an agency such as the Commission on Uniform State Laws be urged to make a fundamental study of family property law and prepare a model law looking toward protection of a married woman's rights in property acquired during the marriage in common law States and greater rights in the management of community property in community property States. It asked that the recent law revision in Texas be brought to the attention of appropriate groups in other community property States.

Convinced that the right of a woman to determine her own reproductive life is a basic human right, the task force recommended repeal of laws that make abortion a criminal offense and that restrict access to birth control devices and information.

The task force further suggested that alimony should not be used to redress wrongs and that criteria for fixing alimony should recognize contributions of each spouse to the family and the financial need of each spouse; that voluntary separation should be included as grounds for divorce; and that married women should have the same rights as married men to establish their own domiciles.

Protection of the rights of children was of basic concern. The task force declared that illegitimate children should have the same legal rights as the legitimate, that in divorce cases custody of children should be granted in accordance with the best interests of the child, and that the mother should not have to bring charges of criminal nonsupport against the father in order to receive public assistance.

Health and Welfare

The Task Force on Health and Welfare prefaced its report with this statement: "To assure for women the right of choice with respect to their own lives and to planning for their families, we make the following recommendations."

There are 15 of these recommendations, dealing with the topics of increased opportunities, on-the-job training, homemaker services, and protective services for children.

The task force urged that methods of family planning and access to them be readily available, and that legal abortion services be available under the same conditions to all women regardless of economic status.

Recognizing that adequate day care of children continues to be a need throughout the country, the task force urged community development of facilities and programs "to meet its needs." It further urged that opportunities for challenging assignments for volunteers be expanded by public and private health, welfare, and other service organizations, and that governmental agencies make the necessary effort to obtain the removal of any legal barriers to the use of needed volunteers.

Another proposal was for intensive study and bold experimentation as to the most feasible methods of providing basic income maintenance.

Labor Standards

The task force recommended that all nonsupervisory workers be covered under the minimum wage provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act. It was particularly concerned that agricultural and household workers, who are vulnerable to exceedingly low wages because of lack of statutory protection, be covered by the act.

The task force proposed that overtime be paid at the rate of at least 1½ times the regular rate after 8 hours a day and 40 hours a week. It also recommended that States which have not yet done so enact adequate minimum wage laws and amend their maximum hours laws to permit women to work overtime beyond the maximum hours if this overtime is compensated at a rate at least in accordance with the premium pay provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act and if the overtime is agreed to voluntarily by the employee.

In States where there are prohibitions on nightwork applicable to women only, the task force recommended that these be removed for adult women and urged the assurance of adequate police protection, transportation, and meal facilities for all workers employed at night. It also recommended that laws prohibiting women from being employed in particular occupations be repealed.

Another recommendation by the task force was that States repeal laws which place absolute limits on weightlifting and replace them with well-designed safety and health regulations adequate for the protection of both men and women.

Also recommended were provisions for reasonable maternity leave, a review of laws pertaining to occupational safety and health, and the strengthening of enforcement powers of Federal and State fair employment practices commissions. The task force proposed that all State fair employment laws contain provisions relating to discrimination based on sex.

Social Insurance and Taxes

Included in the 11 specific recommendations for improving the unemployment insurance system as it relates to women were proposals concerning: experience rating and financing; disqualification for compensation with respect to pregnancy and to leaving on account of family obligations; and benefits based on dependents' allowances. A Federal-State system of temporary disability insurance, tied to the unemployment insurance system, to include maternity benefits was recommended.

Also supported was legislation to permit some couples to combine earnings for purposes of computing social security benefits. As a long-range solution to the inequities to which working wives are subjected, the task force requested the next Advisory Council on Social Security to consider a "double-decker" approach that would (1) provide for meeting the needs of dependents through a socially adequate benefit financed out of general revenues and (2) provide for supplementation of this basic benefit by contributory wage-related benefits for those who worked in covered employment.

State

Even before *American Women* was transmitted to the President in October 1963, several States had established commissions on the status of women, and all 50 States had done so by February 1967. In addition, commissions have been set up in the District of Columbia, the Virgin Islands, Puerto Rico, and two municipalities. Over the years, changes in State administration frequently have meant a slowing down of commission activities —sometimes for a brief period, sometimes longer if a major reorganization of structure and personnel was involved. In only two States have official activities come to an end, and in one of these an active citizens' council on the status of women has picked up the task of implementing the original commission's recommendations. A new trend appears to be the establishment of more city commissions in order to focus on local problems while working cooperatively with the State commissions and participating in the nationwide movement.

Most commissions were created by action of State Governors and about a fifth by State legislatures. A few have appropriations which permit a paid executive, but the majority have financial assistance to cover only a few items, and therefore rely primarily on the voluntary services of their members. The Department of Labor, through the Women's Bureau, assisted in the organization of the commissions and provides continuing technical assistance and staff support. The commissions have made substantial contributions by informing women and inspiring them to study and act on their problems.

The functions and target areas of the great majority of State commissions were defined by their Governors or State legislatures. Areas of concern originally were patterned after those of the President's Commission, focusing on employment, home and community, labor legislation, civil and political rights, education and counseling, and social insurance and tax law. Some commissions recently have branched out in new directions. Several have set up committees on special problems of women in poverty. Others have developed special projects to expand day care services or to upgrade the occupation of household employment.

Most commissions have between 15 and 30 members; and they usually draw on the assistance of specialists, interested individuals, and organization representatives on committees or task forces. A major factor in the effectiveness of many commissions lies in the fact that their membership is broad and representative. Active participants include leaders in women's civic and service organizations, church groups, unions, employer associations, educational institutions, and professional and vocational organizations. Many commissions include State legislators and officials; most include men and representatives of minority groups in their memberships and are making a determined effort to include more members under 30 years of age and also those with low incomes.

Local and regional conferences, discussion groups, and workshops have been sponsored by State commissions. These have provided a forum for nationwide discussion of major, and sometimes controversial, issues. They have reached and informed many women—and men—who might not otherwise have become involved, and provided avenues for communicating effective methods for implementation of their recommendations.

State commissions have been effective in their efforts to secure passage of new and improved labor laws. The unprecedented gains in State minimum wage legislation in the last 5 years—six new laws and many strengthening amendments—can be largely attributed to the determination of the commissions. In various States they have successfully campaigned for equal pay and fair employment practices legislation. In others they have won the battle to secure the right of women to serve on State court juries or, in some cases, to serve on the same basis as men. By preparing rosters of qualified women, they have stimulated both Federal and State agencies to put women in positions of leadership, and have encouraged women themselves to seek and accept more responsible appointive or elective positions. Women today are serving on school boards and draft boards; as State registrars of motor vehicles; as State treasurers or commissioners of revenue; and in many other jobs, paid or honorary, that were once reserved for men.

Concentrated efforts have been made by many commissions to increase educational, training, and guidance opportunities for women. Guidance and counseling centers have been established, a part-time degree program has been initiated at a State university city campus, and local industry has been helped to provide training programs for women workers.

Through these and many other activities, the commissions on the status of women have provided the continuing leadership at the local level which is so essential if progress is to be made toward the goal of helping women to achieve their full potential in a democratic society.

Part IV

Organizations of Interest to Women

339–458

300/301

ORGANIZATIONS OF INTEREST TO WOMEN

National organizations for women, together with some professional organizations for both women and men, are grouped in the following list according to fields of interest. Membership is noted when recent figures are available. (For an alphabetical list of organizations included, see pages 329–331.)

Civic, Religious, and Social Organizations

Civic

League of Women Voters of the United States, 1200 17th Street NW., Washington, D.C. 20036. Founded 1920. Its purpose is to promote political responsibility through informed and active participation of citizens in government. Membership: 146,000 in more than 1,237 local leagues organized in 50 States, the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico.

Religious

Church Women United, 475 Riverside Drive, New York, N.Y. 10027. Organized 1941. It is a movement related to the National Council of the Churches of Christ in the United States of America. Its purpose is to unite women in their allegiance to Jesus Christ as divine Lord and Saviour and to assist them in relating to their fellow Christians in such a way as most nearly fulfills their common calling through the church. Membership: 14 million and 2,500 local councils of churchwomen.

Unitarian Universalist Women's Federation, 25 Beacon Street, Boston, Mass. 02108. Founded 1963. Its purpose is to uphold and extend the philosophy of liberal religion while stressing the unique contribution that women alone can make. It serves the spiritual and social needs of women through group expression, education, service, and action. Membership: 20,000.

Social

American Women's Voluntary Services, Inc., 125 East 65th Street, New York, N.Y. 10021. Founded 1940. Its purpose is to make available to all women of America the opportunity to work actively on a voluntary basis for their country through constructive service to their community, and to instruct and guide these volunteers toward the achievement of this end.

Association of the Junior Leagues of America, Inc., The Waldorf-Astoria, New York, N.Y. 10022. Founded 1921. Nonprofit, advisory to 213 Junior Leagues in the United States, Canada, and Mexico, with total membership of 95,000 community volunteers. Junior League purpose is to foster interest among its members in the social, economic, educational, cultural, and civic conditions of the community, and to make their volunteer service efficient.

B'nai B'rith Women, 1640 Rhode Island Avenue NW., Washington, D.C. 20036. Founded 1897. It is a Jewish women's service organization engaging in educational, civic, and philanthropic programs. It provides both womanpower and financial support for projects vital to the welfare of the individual, community, and country. The largest part of its funds and programing is devoted to youth-building activities and advancement of equal opportunity and rights for all. The organization established and maintains a home for emotionally disturbed children in Israel. In the United States it contributes to the support of a number of national medical institutions and a residential treatment center for children. Membership: 135,000 in the United States and Canada.

Camp Fire Girls, Inc., 65 Worth Street, New York, N.Y. 10013. Founded 1910. Its purpose is to perpetuate the spiritual ideals of the home and to stimulate and aid in the formation of habits making for health and character. It seeks to serve the leisure-time needs of all girls from 7 through high school age, and emphasizes the individual development of each girl. Its program supplements the training of the home, church or synagogue, and school through enjoyable and character-building activities. Membership: 600,000.

General Federation of Women's Clubs, 1734 N Street NW., Washington, D.C. 20036. Established 1890. Its objective is to unite women's clubs and like organizations throughout the world for mutual benefit and for the promotion of their common interest in education, philanthropy, public welfare, moral values, civics, and fine arts. Membership: 11 million through combined membership with affiliated groups in 58 countries, territories, and possessions (862,740 per capita paying members).

Girl Scouts of the United States of America, 830 Third Avenue, New York, N.Y. 10022. Founded 1912. Its purpose is to help girls of every race, creed, national origin, and background to develop as happy, resourceful individuals, willing to share their abilities as citizens in their homes, communities, country, and world. Membership: 2,968,000 girls. Direction and guidance is given by 626,000 adult volunteers, who are supported by 2,700 employed professional staff members serving throughout the United States and in Europe and the Far East.

Girls Clubs of America, Inc., 133 East 62d Street, New York, N.Y. 10021. Founded 1945. National nonprofit youth organization. Its goal is to train girls to be responsible citizens and homemakers. The organization provides daily out-of-school programs in permanent clubhouses for girls from 6 years of age through high school. The program is available to all girls, regardless of race, creed, or national origin, at flexible membership fees. Membership: 85,000 girls, 130 clubs throughout the Nation and Canada.

Hadassah, The Women's Zionist Organization of America, Inc., 65 East 52d Street, New York, N.Y. 10022. Founded 1912. Its purpose is to participate in efforts that help safeguard the democratic way of life here and that work toward peace and security throughout the world; provide basic Jewish education as background for intelligent and creative Jewish living in America and help interpret Israel to the American people. Through affiliation with Hadassah in Israel, it supports medical institutions, teaching, research and public health networks, and child welfare and vocational education projects. It also fosters a program of Jewish education, encourages participation in American civic affairs, conducts youth activities, and provides fellowships and other grants for travel and study in Israel.

Lucy Stone League, The, 38 East 57th Street, New York, N.Y. 10022. The League is a center for research and information on the status of women. Membership: About 100.

National Assembly for Social Policy and Development, Inc., The, 345 East 46th Street, New York, N.Y. 10017. Organized 1967 (formerly the National Social Welfare Assembly). It formulates, proposes, and advances national social policy in its areas of competence by documenting needs and resources; presenting pros and cons of alternatives; giving expert technical consultation; and communicating need and aspirations to those in position to bring about change. Assists organizations in adapting programs as needed for today's problems, develops new ideas for programs and delivery of service, proposes new patterns of service systems, and provides a mechanism for organizations and interests to work together on common concerns. Membership: 300. (Half are at large and half from recommendations of the national organizations affiliated and associated with The Assembly.)

National Association of Colored Women's Clubs, Inc., 1601 R Street NW., Washington, D.C. 20009. The organization was founded in 1896 to prepare women for complete community participation by raising the standards of homelife and by providing better health, educational, and economic opportunities. Membership: 100,000 in 42 States.

National Committee on Household Employment, 1346 Connecticut Avenue NW., Washington, D.C. 20036. Founded 1965. Its purpose is to serve as a clearinghouse and coordinator for all organizations concerned with upgrading the status of private household employment, to provide leadership in establishing and promoting standards for private household work, to serve as liaison with government agencies, and to stimulate the development of additional jobs—new and traditional—and training opportunities in the private household field. Local counterparts of the national agencies and organizations participating in the National Committee form committees on household employment which enlist the assistance and services of local public and private agencies to carry out its program and achieve its objectives. Membership: 22 national voluntary agencies and organizations with a combined membership of approximately 25 million men and women.

National Consumers League, 1029 Vermont Avenue NW., Washington, D.C. 20005. Established 1899. Its purpose is to awaken consumers' interest in their responsibility for conditions under which goods are made and distributed and, through investigation, education, and legislation, to promote fair labor standards. Its legislative program includes consumer protection, minimum wage, child labor, hours of work, social security, and improvement of the conditions of migrant workers in agriculture. There are active State branches in New Jersey and Ohio, and individual members in every State. (Not restricted to women.)

National Council of Catholic Women, 1312 Massachusetts Avenue NW., Washington, D.C. 20005. Established 1920. Its purpose is to unite existing organizations as well as individual Catholic women in order that the federation may speak and act as a unit when the good of church or country demands such expression. Through five commissions based on Vatican Council II, it endeavors to stimulate interest in the welfare of all working persons. Affiliated with World Union of Catholic Women's Organizations. Membership: 10 million women through more than 14,000 national, State, diocesan, and local affiliated groups. Individual membership program in the planning stage.

National Council of Jewish Women, Inc., 1 West 47th Street, New York, N.Y. 10036. Established 1893. An educational and service organization which leads and educates women for constructive action in the community. Through 265 affiliated local units, it maintains over 1,000 community services to the aging and to children and youth. A major emphasis in recent years has been development of programs to meet the needs of disadvantaged families and out-of-school, out-of-work youth. It also conducts an adult education and social action program concerned with major national and international issues. Its overseas program extends these services to Jewish communities abroad by sponsoring studies in U.S. graduate schools for educators and social welfare specialists, and by direct financial aid to educational institutions. Membership: 100,000.

National Council of Negro Women, Inc., Suite 832, 1346 Connecticut Avenue NW., Washington, D.C. 20036. Organized 1935. It seeks the cooperation and membership of all races and works for the integration of Negroes into the economic, social, cultural, civic, and political life of every community. There are 25 national organizations and 107 local sections capable of reaching 850,000 women.

National Council of Women of the United States, Inc., 345 East 46th Street, New York, N.Y. 10017. Founded 1888. Serves as information center and clearinghouse for 30 affiliated women's organizations; conducts pilot projects and sponsors conferences on national and international problems and matters of concern to women, sharing results with affiliated groups; and provides exchange of news and ideas among the women of the free world. Membership: Approximately 4 million (individual and through affiliates).

National Jewish Welfare Board, 145 East 32d Street, New York, N.Y. 10016. Founded 1917. It is the national association of Young Men's and Women's Hebrew Associations and Jewish Community Centers. It is also the recognized Jewish community agency for meeting the religious, welfare, and morale needs of Jewish personnel in the Armed Forces and their dependents, and is a constituent agency of the United Service Organizations (USO). The Women's Organizations' Services of the National Jewish Welfare Board coordinate the work of nine national Jewish women's organizations united for services to hospitalized veterans, military personnel in camps, and chaplains.

National Organization for Women (N.O.W.), Suite 500, 1629 K Street NW., Washington, D.C. 20006. Founded 1966. Its purpose is to work actively for full equality for all women in America, in truly equal partnership with men. N.O.W. campaigns for full income tax deductions for child care costs of working parents, for a nationwide network of child care centers to enable more women to work while raising a family, for greatly expanded job training programs for women, and for reexamination of marriage and divorce laws and customs that discriminate against women and men alike. Membership: More than 1,000 men and women.

National Woman's Christian Temperance Union, 1730 Chicago Avenue, Evanston, Ill. 60201. Established 1874. Its purpose is to unite the Christian women of the United States for the education of the public to a standard of total abstinence from alcoholic beverages and abolition of liquor traffic, for youth training in habits of total abstinence and sobriety, and for the promotion of good citizenship, peace, and the general welfare. Paid membership: 300,000.

Women in Community Service, Inc. (WICS), 1730 Rhode Island Avenue NW., Washington, D.C. 20036 Incorporated December 1964 by members of Church Women United, National Council of Catholic Women, National Council of Jewish Women, and National Council of Negro Women. Its function is to frame and carry out effective volunteer service programs against poverty throughout the Nation. WICS has processed more than 60,000 young women interested in the Job Corps. WICS volunteers number more than 11,000 and have established 289 screening centers in 50 States.

Women's International League for Peace and Freedom, administrative headquarters U.S. Section: Jane Addams House, 2006 Walnut Street, Philadelphia, Pa. 19103; legislative office: 120 Maryland Avenue NE., Washington, D.C. 20002. Established 1915 in The Hague. Its purpose is to work by nonviolent means to establish the political, economic, social, and psychological conditions throughout the world which are conducive to world peace. It seeks the abolition of all wars and the substitution of methods other than violence in the solution of conflict. It seeks justice for all without distinction as to sex, race, class, or creed.

Young Women's Christian Association of the United States of America, 600 Lexington Avenue, New York, N.Y. 10022. Founded in the United States 1858. Organized to advance the physical, mental, social, and spiritual well-being of women and girls, it is a membership movement with a Christian purpose open to persons of all races and all faiths. Emphasis is placed on both leadership development and social action. Affiliated with the World YWCA. Approximately 5,500 locations in the United States.

Professional and Business Organizations

Accountancy

American Society of Women Accountants, 327 South LaSalle Street, Chicago, Ill. 60604. Founded 1938. Its purpose is to offer technical and educational programs to improve the efficiency of its members, to provide opportunity for exchange of ideas, and to encourage many of its members to become certified public accountants. Membership: 4,050.

American Woman's Society of Certified Public Accountants, 327 South LaSalle Street, Chicago, Ill. 60604. Founded 1933. Its purpose is to advance the professional interest of women certified public accountants and to promote a greater interest among women in the higher attainments of the accounting profession. Membership: 751.

Banking

National Association of Bank-Women Inc., 60 East 42d Street, New York, N.Y. 10017. Founded 1921. Its purpose is to bring together women executives engaged in the profession of banking for exchange of ideas and experiences for mutual benefit, to promote the interests of its members, and to further the interests of all women in the banking profession. It is the only national organization of executive women in banking, with members from national, State, and savings banks, and trust companies. Membership: 6,000.

Construction

National Association of Women in Construction, 346 North Beachwood Drive, Los Angeles, Calif. 90004. Organized 1953; received national charter 1955. Objectives: to unite for their mutual benefit women who are actively engaged in various phases of the construction industry, to encourage cooperation and better understanding among women in the industry, and to promote fellowship and good will among members of the organization. Membership is open to all women who are employed in or who own businesses in the construction or allied fields. NAWIC is nonprofit, nonsectarian, and nonpartisan; not affiliated with any religious, fraternal, or labor group. There are 147 chapters in various cities throughout the United States. Membership: More than 5,000.

Credit

Credit Women–International, 2051 Railway Exchange Building, St. Louis, Mo. 63101. Founded 1930. Its purpose is to promote the common interests and to contribute the combined efforts of women working in the retail credit profession. It is primarily an educational organization emphasizing the need of continued education for women if they are to advance in their chosen careers; also, it provides a stimulus for self-improvement. Membership: Approximately 14,200.

Engineering

Society of Women Engineers, United Engineering Center, 345 East 47th Street, New York, N.Y. 10017. Established 1952. Its purpose is to inform young women, their parents, counselors, and the public in general of the qualifications and achievements of women engineers and of the opportunities open to them; to assist women engineers in readying themselves for a return to active work after temporary retirement; and to encourage women engineers to attain high levels of educational and professional achievement. Membership: 950.

Fashion

Fashion Group, Inc., The, 9 Rockefeller Plaza, New York, N.Y. 10020. Founded 1931. It is a nonprofit association of women engaged in fashion work, formed to advance the principles of applied art in industry, to maintain high standards, to provide liaison among the many facets of fashion industries, to disseminate information on trends through meetings and bulletins, and to encourage new interest in fashion through training courses and scholarships. Membership: 4,000 members with 28 regional groups in the United States, plus 2 regional groups in Canada, 2 in Australia, and 1 group in Paris.

Finance

Federation of Women Shareholders in American Business, Inc., 527 Lexington Avenue, New York, N.Y. 10017. Its purpose is (a) to educate women concerning the importance of using their vote as stockholders (including the goal of a secret ballot for all shareholders—especially employee-shareholders—in corporate elections); (b) to delineate their responsibilities as employers of management and labor; and (c) to provide financial education for women because they own, although they do not control, 70 percent of the privately owned wealth. It supports equal pay for equal work, equal mandatory retirement age, and equal executive training and opportunity in business; and wants women on boards of directors of major corporations and banks.

Geography

Society of Woman Geographers, The, 1619 New Hampshire Avenue NW., Washington, D.C. 20009. Founded 1925. Its purpose is to form a medium of contact between traveled women engaged in geographical work and allied arts and sciences, to further geograpical work in all its branches, to spread geographical knowledge, and to encourage geographical research. Membership: 400.

Health Services

American Association of Industrial Nurses, Inc., 170 East 61st Street, New York, N.Y. 10021. Founded 1942. It is the professional association of registered nurses engaged in the practice of industrial nursing. Its purpose is to maintain the honor and character of the profession among industrial nurses, to improve community health by better nursing service to workers, to develop and promote standards for industrial nurses and industrial nursing services, and to stimulate interest in and provide a forum for the discussion of problems in the field of industrial nursing. Membership: 5,503.

American Association of Medical Record Librarians, 211 East Chicago Avenue, Chicago, Ill. 60611. Founded 1928. Its purpose is to improve the quality and efficiency of medical records in hospitals, clinics, and other health and mental institutions; to establish standards and criteria of competency; and to develop and improve the teaching and practice of medical record science so that it may be of greater service to the science of medicine and public health. Membership: 6,920. (Not restricted to women, but membership is primarily women.)

American Association of Nurse Anesthetists, Suite 3010, Prudential Plaza, Chicago, Ill. 60601. Founded 1931. Its purpose is to develop educational standards and techniques in the administration of anesthetics, to facilitate cooperation between nurse anesthetists and the medical profession, and to promote an educational program on the importance of the proper administration of anesthetics. Membership: 13,087.

American Dental Assistants Association, Inc., 211 East Chicago Avenue, Chicago, Ill. 60611. Established 1924. Its purpose is to promote the education of the dental assistant, to improve and sustain the vocation of dental assisting, and to contribute to the advancement of the dental profession and the improvement of public health. Membership: 14,000.

American Dental Hygienists' Association, 211 East Chicago Avenue, Chicago, Ill. 60611. Established 1923. Its purpose is to elevate and sustain the professional character and education of dental hygienists; to promote among them mutual improvement, social intercourse, and good will; to inform and direct public opinion in relation to dental hygiene and the promotion of pertinent legislation; and to represent and safeguard the common interests of members of the profession. Membership: Approximately 6,800 active and 3,680 student.

American Medical Women's Association, Inc., 1740 Broadway, New York, N.Y. 10019. Founded 1915. Its purpose is to further the art and science of medicine; to promote interests common to women physicians and the public; to aid and encourage premedical, medical, and postgraduate medical students; to foster medical relief projects; and to cooperate with other organizations having comparable interests. Affiliated with the Medical Women's International Association.

American Nurses' Association, Inc., 10 Columbus Circle, New

York, N.Y. 10019. Organized 1896 as the Nurses Associated Alumnae of the United States and Canada. It is the professional association for registered nurses. Its purposes are to foster high standards of nursing practice, to promote the professional and educational advancement of nurses, to advance the economic and general welfare of nurses, to promote research to improve the practice of nursing, and to support legislation to provide all people with better nursing care. Affiliated with the International Council of Nurses. Membership: 170,000.

American Occupational Therapy Association, 251 Park Avenue South, New York, N.Y. 10010. Founded 1917. Its objectives are to promote the use of occupational therapy, to advance standards of education and training in this field, to conduct a national registration examination, to maintain a registry of qualified occupational therapists, to promote research, and to engage in other activities advantageous to the profession and its members. Membership: 5,900. Registrants: 8,100. (Not restricted to women, but membership is primarily women.)

American Physical Therapy Association, 1740 Broadway, New York, N.Y. 10019. Founded 1921. The object of this organization is to foster the development and improvement of physical therapy service and physical therapy education through the coordinated action of physical therapists, allied professional groups, citizens, agencies, and schools so that the physical therapy needs of the people will be met. Membership: 10,888. (Approximately 75 percent are women.) In addition, there are 1,462 student members.

American Public Health Asociation, Inc., 1740 Broadway, New York, N.Y. 10019. Founded 1872. Its purpose is to protect and promote public and personal health. It is a nongovernmental organization and the only national society providing a common forum for the field of public health and a single voice for the physicians, nurses, educators, civic leaders, engineers, dentists, sanitarians, laboratory scientists, nutritionists, statisticians, industrial hygienists, and the many specialists making up the community health team. Membership: Approximately 18,000 individual members and fellows, 52 affiliated associations and branches, 42 sustaining members, 130 agency members.

American Society of Medical Technologists, Suite 1600, Hermann Professional Building, Houston, Tex. 77025. Founded 1933. Its purpose is to promote higher standards in clinical laboratory methods and research, and to raise the status of those specializing in medical laboratory technique. Membership: 12,000. (Not restricted to women, but membership is primarily women.)

American Society of Radiologic Technologists, c/o Genevieve J. Eilert, Executive Secretary, 537 South Main Street, Fond du Lac, Wis. 54935. Founded 1920. Its purpose is to promote the science and art of radiography and to assist in establishing approved standards of training and recognized qualifications for those engaged in technical work in radiological departments. Membership: 14,190. (Not restricted to women, but membership is about 70 percent women.)

American Speech and Hearing Association, 9030 Old Georgetown Road, Washington, D.C. 20014. Founded 1925. Its purposes are to encourage basic scientific study of the processes of individual human speech and hearing, to promote investigation of speech and hearing disorders, and to foster improvement of therapeutic procedures with such disorders; to stimulate exchange of information among persons thus engaged and to disseminate such information. Membership: 11,858. (Not restricted to women.)

Association of American Women Dentists, c/o Dr. Josephine Palancia, President, 1527 West Passyunk Avenue, Philadelphia, Pa. 19145. Founded 1921. Objectives are to promote good fellowship and cooperation among its members and to aid in the advancement of women in dentistry. Membership: Approximately 300.

National Association for Practical Nurse Education and Service, Inc., 535 Fifth Avenue, New York, N.Y. 10017. Organized 1941. Its major purpose is to promote practical nurse education and service to State associations. It conducts an accrediting program for schools of practical nursing; sponsors workshops, institutes, seminars, and summer school sessions; offers consultation service; and publishes a monthly magazine, manuals, and other educational literature. Membership: 31,387. (Not restricted to women, but membership is primarily women.)

National Federation of Licensed Practical Nurses, Inc., 250 West 57th Street, New York, N.Y. 10019. Organized 1949. Its major objectives are to associate all licensed practical nurses and to protect their welfare, to further the highest ethical principles, to interpret the standards of licensed practical nursing, and to promote the most effective use of their services. Membership: 32,000.

National League for Nursing, 10 Columbus Circle, New York, N.Y. 10019. Organized 1952. Its purpose is to foster the development of hospital, industrial, public health, and other organized nursing services and of nursing education through the coordinated action of nurses, allied professional groups, citizens, agencies, and schools so that the nursing needs of the people will be met. Membership: 23,000 individuals and 1,800 agency members.

Home Economics

American Dietetic Association, 620 North Michigan Avenue, Chicago, Ill. 60611. Founded 1917. The objective of this association is to improve the nutrition of human beings, to advance the science of dietetics and nutrition, and to promote education in these and allied areas. Membership: 19,000. (Not restricted to women, but membership is primarily women.)

American Home Economics Association, 1600 20th Street NW., Washington, D.C. 20009. Established 1909. A national organization for home economists in all areas of the profession, including teaching, research, extension, business, health and welfare, dietetics, and journalism. Its purpose is to improve the quality and standards of individual and family life through education, research, cooperative activities, information, and legislation. Membership: 28,000 individual members, both men and women; 425 affiliated college chapters; 248 groups of home economists in homemaking.

National Executive Housekeepers Association, Inc., The, c/o Mrs. Alberta J. Wetherholt, Executive Secretary, Room 204, Business and Professional Building, Gallipolis, Ohio 45631. Incorporated 1931. Its purpose is to bring together the progressive executive housekeepers of the country in an active, cooperative body; to encourage educational activities and high professional standards; to encourage a wider knowledge of administrative problems; to promote research; and to engage in other activities advantageous to the profession and its members. Membership: Approximately 3,400 in 85 chapters. (Approximately 85 percent are women.)

Insurance

National Association of Insurance Women (International), Suite 202, 4828 South Peoria, Tulsa, Okla. 74105. Founded 1940. Its purpose is to encourage and foster educational programs designed to broaden the knowledge of insurance of its members and to cultivate their friendship, loyalty, and service. Membership: Approximately 14,300 in 300 affiliated clubs.

Women Leaders Round Table, The National Association of Life Underwriters, c/o Miss Ethel B. Karene, C.L.U., Union Central Life Insurance Co., 225 Broadway, New York, N.Y. 10007. Founded 1936. Its purpose is to promote a friendly relationship among women underwriters who are producing a considerable volume of business, and to provide for an interchange of ideas to the advantage of the institution of life insurance and of the general public. Membership: 365.

Interior Decoration

American Institute of Interior Designers, 730 Fifth Avenue, New York, N.Y. 10019. Founded 1931. A nonprofit association of interior designers and decorators, organized to maintain standards of design and professional practice. Membership: 4,800 in 41 chapters. (Not restricted to women.)

Law

National Association of Women Lawyers, American Bar Center, 1155 East 60th Street, Chicago, Ill. 60637. Founded 1899. Its purpose is to promote the welfare and interests of women lawyers, to maintain the honor and integrity of the legal profession, to aid in the enactment of legislation for the common good and in the administration of justice, and to undertake actively whatever is necessary to promote and advance the purposes of the association. Membership: 1,200.

Library Science

American Library Association, 50 East Huron Street, Chicago, Ill. 60611. Founded 1876. Its objective is to promote library service and librarianship. Membership: Approximately 35,000. (Not restricted to women, but personal membership is predominantly women.)

Special Libraries Association, 31 East 10th Street, New York, N.Y. 10003. Organized 1909. Its purpose is to promote the collection, organization, and dissemination of information in specialized fields and to improve the usefulness of special libraries and information services. Membership: 6,700. (Not restricted to women.)

Music

National Federation of Music Clubs, **Suite 1215, 600 South Michigan Avenue, Chicago, Ill. 60605. Founded 1898. Its purpose is to bring into working relations with one another music clubs and other musical organizations and individuals directly or indirectly associated with musical activity, for the purpose of developing and maintaining high musical standards; to aid and encourage musical education; and to promote American music and American artists throughout America and other countries. Membership: 600,000. (Not restricted to women, but membership is primarily women.)**

Personnel

American Personnel and Guidance Association, **1605 New Hampshire Avenue NW., Washington, D.C. 20009. Origin stems from 1913 with founding of National Vocational Guidance Association, which is one of eight divisions now constituting APGA. Its purposes are to advance the scientific discipline of personnel and guidance work; to conduct and foster programs of education in the field of personnel and guidance; and to promote sound personnel and guidance practices in the interests of society. It stimulates, promotes, and conducts programs of scientific research and of education in the field of personnel and guidance work; publishes scientific, educational, and professional literature; advances high standards of professional conduct; and conducts scientific, educational, and professional meetings and conferences. Membership: 25,000.**

International Association of Personnel Women, **Suite 925, 405 Lexington Avenue, New York, N.Y. 10017. Founded 1951. Its objectives are to encourage, promote, and extend women's memberships in associations devoted to a better understanding of employer-employee relationships; to encourage and assist women to prepare for careers in the fields of personnel and industrial relations; to stimulate the organization of local groups for study, research, and exchange of information and ideas; and to promote scientific study of personnel and industrial relations work by collecting and publishing such information, organizing conferences and discussion groups, and publishing and distributing conference proceedings and other books, periodicals, and reports that will help accomplish its purposes and objectives. Membership: 1,200 including members in England, Norway, Canada, and the Philippines.**

Radio and Television

American Women in Radio and Television, Inc., 75 East 55th Street, New York, N.Y. 10022. Established 1951. The objectives of this professional organization of women working as broadcasters, executives, and administrators and in a creative capacity in radio, television, broadcast-advertising, and closely allied fields are to provide a medium for communication and exchange of ideas; to encourage cooperation within the allied fields of the industry; and to augment the value of members to their employers, their industry, their community, and their country. Membership: 1,900.

Railway

National Association of Railway Business Women, Inc., Room 714, 50 East Broad Street, Columbus, Ohio 43215. Organized 1918; incorporated 1941. Its purpose is to stimulate interest in the railroad industry; to foster cooperation and better understanding within the railroad industry and its affiliates; to create good public relations for the railroad industry; to further the educational, social, and professional interests of its members; to undertake charitable, benevolent, and social welfare projects; and to establish, provide, and operate a residence or residences to be used as living quarters for members after their retirement. First residence for retired members was established in Boca Raton, Fla.; the second residence was established in Green Valley, Ariz. National welfare project is providing model electric trains to schools and hospitals for handicapped children. Membership: Approximately 7,000 active in 60 chapters located in 33 States. Associate membership available.

Real Estate

Women's Council of the National Association of Real Estate Boards, 155 East Superior Street, Chicago, Ill. 60611. Established 1939. Its purpose is to promote women's active participation in local Board activities and to present programs to all women realtors within local and State groups that offer an opportunity for leadership, education, and fellowship. Membership: 5,469.

Secretarial

National Association of Legal Secretaries, 146 North San Fernando Boulevard, Burbank, Calif. 91502. Founded 1950. Its purposes are to organize and charter local chapters of legal secretaries associations throughout the world; to carry on a program for further education of those engaged in legal secretarial work; to cooperate with attorneys, judges, and bar associations in stimulating high professional standards and ethics among those persons engaged as secretaries, stenographers, and clerks in private law offices, trust companies, and various courts and agencies; and to aid in the enactment of legislation for the public good. Membership: Approximately 14,000.

National Secretaries Association (International), 1103 Grand Avenue, Kansas City, Mo. 64106. Organized 1942. Its purpose is to elevate the standards of the secretarial profession by uniting, for their mutual benefit by means of educational and professional activities, men and women who are or have been engaged in secretarial work. It established the Institute for Certifying Secretaries, a department of NSA; and sponsors the annual certifying examination presented by this institute the first Friday and Saturday of May at universities and colleges across the country. Membership: 25,000 in 580 chapters.

Social Service

National Association of Social Workers, 2 Park Avenue, New York, N.Y. 10016. Established 1955. Its purpose is to improve the quality of social work practice, advance the profession, and represent it on social welfare issues. Membership: 46,000. Chapters: 170 in all 50 States, the District of Columbia, Puerto Rico, and Europe. (Membership includes both men and women.)

National Committee for the Day Care of Children, Inc., 114 East 32d Street, New York, N.Y. 10016. Founded 1959 as the Inter-City Committee for Day Care of Children, Inc.; name changed in 1960. Its purposes are to encourage cooperative effort throughout the country toward the establishment of adequate day care services for children; to interpret as widely as possible the needs of children for day care; to promote good standards for day care; to encourage study and research in the field of day care; and to stimulate the exchange of information, ideas, and experiences in the field of day care. Membership: Approximately 950, including 61 agencies.

National Council for Homemaker Services, Inc., 1740 Broadway, New York, N.Y. 10019. Incorporated 1962. Its purposes are to promote understanding of the values of homemaker services; to provide a central source of information and a medium through which knowledge and experience can be pooled and made available; to encourage and guide communities in organizing and extending homemaker programs; to promote development of standards; to publish reports and distribute educational and promotional materials; and to sponsor conferences and seminars. Membership: 211 local agencies, 117 individuals, 19 organizations.

Teaching

See Educational Organizations.

Writing

American Newspaper Women's Club, Inc., 1607 22d Street NW., Washington, D.C. 20008. Founded 1932. Its purpose is to maintain a meeting place for members, to promote professional pursuits and good fellowship among the members, and to encourage friendly understanding between the members and those whom they must contact in their profession. Membership: 260 professional, 105 associate members.

National League of American Pen Women, Inc., 1300 17th Street NW., Washington, D.C. 20036. Founded 1897. Its purpose is to conduct and promote creative and educational activities in art, letters, and music. Membership: 5,000.

Women's National Press Club, 505 National Press Building, Washington, D.C. 20004. Founded 1919. Purposes are to encourage higher professional standards among women in journalism and other media of public information; to present outstanding leaders and foster discussion in meetings and seminars, thereby encouraging dissemination of information to the public on national and international affairs—economic, educational, scientific, and welfare developments, and any additional topics of current interest. Membership: 550.

General Service Organizations of Business and Professional Women

Altrusa International, Inc., 332 South Michigan Avenue, Chicago, Ill. 60604. Established 1917. Pioneer of women's service clubs.

It channels its service work through four committees: International Relations, Community Services, Vocational Services, and Altrusa Information. It supports two major projects through voluntary contributions of members: Grants-in-Aid, which awards gift grants to graduate women from Asia and Latin America for higher study, and Founders Fund Vocational Aid, which makes available through local Altrusa clubs grants for women of all ages who need job training, rehabilitation, or other help to equip themselves to find employment or start a business of their own. Membership: 17,941 in 552 clubs in 13 countries.

National Association of Negro Business and Professional Women's Clubs, Inc., c/o Mrs. Margaret L. Belcher, President, 2861 Urban Avenue, Columbus, Ga. 31907. Founded 1935. Its purpose is to promote and protect the interests of Negro business and professional women and create good fellowship among them, to direct their interests toward united action for improved social and civic conditions, to encourage the training and development of women, and to inspire and train young women for leadership. Membership: 10,000.

National Federation of Business and Professional Women's Clubs, Inc., The, 2012 Massachusetts Avenue NW., Washington, D.C. 20006. Established 1919. Its purpose is to elevate the standards and promote the interests of business and professional women, and to extend opportunities to business and professional women through education along lines of industrial, scientific, and vocational activities. Affiliated with International Federation of Business and Professional Women. Membership: More than 178,000 in approximately 3,800 clubs in 50 States, the District of Columbia, Puerto Rico, and the Virgin Islands.

Pilot Club International, 244 College Street, Macon, Ga. 31201. Organized 1921. A classified service club for executive business and professional women. Its objectives are to develop friendship as a means of encouraging and promoting international peace and cultural relations; to inculcate the ideal of service as the basis of all worthy enterprises; to encourage high ethical standards among business and professional women; and to promote active participation in any movement that tends to improve the civic, social, industrial, and commercial welfare of the community. Membership: More than 15,000 in 480 clubs in the United States, Canada, England, France, Bermuda, and Japan.

Quota International, Inc., 1145 19th Street NW., Washington, D.C. 20036. Established 1919. A classified civic service club of women executives. Among its objectives are service to country and community, developing good fellowship and enduring friendship, and emphasizing the worth of useful occupation. It promotes international understanding through club programs and the granting of international fellowships. Other major activities are service to girls, service to the hearing and speech handicapped, and community service. Membership: 12,000 in 392 clubs in four countries.

Soroptimist International Association, Soroptimist Federation of the Americas, Inc., 1616 Walnut Street, Philadelphia, Pa. 19103. Founded 1921. Its purpose is to assist in developing the highest concept of patriotism and love of country; to promote the spirit of service; to foster high ethical standards in business and professions; to advance the status of women; to develop interest in community, national, and international affairs; and to recognize the worthiness and dignity of all legitimate occupations as affording to each Soroptimist an opportunity to serve society. Membership in International Association: 49,000 in 1,600 clubs in 39 countries.

Zonta International, 59 East Van Buren Street, Chicago, Ill. 60605. Established 1919. Its main objectives are encouragement of high ethical standards in business and professions; improvement of the legal, political, economic, and professional status of women; and advancement of international understanding, good will, and peace through a world fellowship of executive women. Membership: 19,000 in 520 clubs in 33 countries.

Educational Organizations

Adult Education Association of the United States of America, 1225 19th Street NW., Washington, D.C. 20036. Founded 1951. Its purpose is to further the concept of education as a process continuing throughout life, by developing greater unity of purpose in the adult education movement, by helping individuals engaged in adult education increase their competence, by bringing agencies of adult education into closer relationship, by detecting needs and gaps in the field and by mobilizing resources for filling them, by making the general public more aware of the need and opportunities for adult education, by assembling and making available knowledge about adult education, and by serving as a voice for the adult education movement. Its services include the publication of leadership materials, consultation services, conferences and field services. Membership: 5,000. (Not restricted to women.)

American Association of University Women, 2401 Virginia Avenue NW., Washington, D.C. 20037. Founded 1882. Its purpose is to enlarge opportunities for college women, and to help members extend their education and use their abilities and training in building better communities and when considering national and international problems. It also works to maintain high standards in education generally. Affiliated with International Federation of University Women. Membership: More than 175,000.

American Council on Education, 1785 Massachusetts Avenue NW., Washington, D.C. 20036. Established 1918. Serves as a center of coordination and cooperation in higher education; conducts inquiries and investigations into specific educational problems and seeks to enlist appropriate agencies for their solutions. Acts as a liaison between higher education and the Federal Government. Membership: 246 educational associations, 1,273 institutions.

American Federation of Teachers, AFL–CIO, 1012 14th Street NW., Washington, D.C. 20005. Founded 1919. Its objectives are to improve working conditions for teachers and to obtain better educational facilities for children. Membership: 140,000.

American Vocational Association, Inc., 1025 15th Street NW., Washington, D.C. 20005. Founded 1925 by a merger of two associations which go back to 1906. Its purpose is to promote vocational, technical, and practical arts education and to improve the quality of instruction in these phases of education, to find the aptitudes and talents of each person and prepare him for the vocation in which he is best fitted to earn his livelihood, and by so doing to contribute to the freedom and security of both the individual and the Nation. Also, promotes training of adult workers in vocational education to update them in their occupations and to train them for new ones. Membership: 40,000, approximately 15,000 of whom are women.

Council on Social Work Education, 345 East 46th Street, New York, N.Y. 10017. Founded 1952. Its purposes are to maintain and improve the quality of social work education; to expand resources for social work education of high quality; to improve the quality, as well as increase the number, of people interested in social work careers; to gain understanding and support for social work education; and to learn from and contribute to social work education in other countries. The Council's concern is with master's degree and advanced programs in social work and undergraduate programs in social welfare. Membership: 3,700 constituent and associate members.

Delta Kappa Gamma Society (*International*), Post Office Box 1589, Austin, Tex. 78767. Founded 1929. Its purposes are to unite women educators of the world in a genuine spiritual fellowship; to honor women who have given or who evidence a potential for distinctive service in any field of education; to advance the professional interest and position of women in education; to sponsor and support desirable educational legislation and initiate legislation in the interests of women educators; to endow scholarships to aid outstanding women educators in pursuing graduate study and to grant fellowships to women educators from other countries; to stimulate personal and professional growth of members and to encourage their participation in appropriate programs of action; to inform the membership of current economic, social, political, and educational issues. Membership: 100,000.

International Toastmistress Clubs, 11301 Long Beach Boulevard, Lynwood, Calif. 90262. Founded 1938. Its purpose is to organize new clubs and to coordinate the work of all member clubs, for improvement of individual members through study and practice in conversation, speech, group leadership, and analytical listening. It is an educational organization for women interested in increasing their ability and confidence. A program of self-development places major emphasis upon communication, leadership training, and skill in organizational techniques. Membership: 20,000.

National Association of College Women, 1501 11th Street NW., Washington, D.C. 20001. Founded 1924. Its purpose is to promote closer union and fellowship among college women for constructive educational work; to study educational conditions with emphasis upon problems affecting college women; to raise educational standards in colleges and universities; to stimulate intellectual attainment among college women; and to arouse in college women a consciousness of their responsibility in aiding in the solution of pertinent problems on local, State, and national levels. Membership: 2,000.

National Association of Women Deans and Counselors, a department of the National Education Association, 1201 16th Street NW., Washington, D.C. 20036. Established 1916. Its basic purpose is to render service to students at all levels through competent performance of personnel and guidance functions, with particular attention to the special needs of girls and women. Membership: 2,500.

National Congress of Colored Parents and Teachers, 201 Ashby Street NW., Atlanta, Ga. 30314. Founded 1926. Its purpose is to promote the welfare of children and youth in home, school, church, and community; to raise the standards of homelife; to secure adequate laws for the care and protection of children and youth; to bring into closer relation the home and the school, that parents and teachers may cooperate intelligently in the training of the child; to develop between educators and the general public such united efforts as can secure for every child the highest advantages in physical, mental, social, and spiritual education. Membership: 250,000. (Not restricted to women.)

National Congress of Parents and Teachers, 700 North Rush Street, Chicago, Ill. 60611. Founded 1897. Its purpose is to promote the welfare of children and youth in home, school, church, and community; to raise the standards of homelife; to secure adequate laws for the care and protection of children and youth; to bring into closer relation the home and the school, that parents and teachers may cooperate intelligently in the training of the child; and to develop between educators and the general public such united efforts as will secure for every child the highest advantages in physical, mental, social, and spiritual education. Membership: 11,029,396. (Not restricted to women.)

National Council of Administrative Women in Education, a department of the National Education Association, 1201 16th Street NW., Washington, D.C. 20036. Founded 1915; became NEA affiliate 1932. Its purpose is to contribute to the advancement of education by encouraging women in education to prepare for and accept the challenge of administrative or executive positions; to urge school systems and educational agencies to recognize women's administrative abilities and to employ qualified women as administrators; to recognize the achievements of women in educational administration; and to work for the general recognition and utilization of women's leadership abilities as a significant national resource. Membership: 1,700.

National Education Association of the United States, 1201 16th Street NW., Washington, D.C. 20036. Established 1857 as the

National Teachers Association. Its purpose is to elevate the character and advance the interests of the teaching profession and to promote the cause of education. Membership: 1,028,456 individual personal memberships and approximately 1,703,316 affiliated through State, territorial, and local groups. (Not restricted to women, but a majority of the members are women.)

Political and Legislative Organizations

Democratic National Committee, Office of Women's Activities, 2600 Virginia Avenue NW., Washington, D.C. 20037. Established 1953, to replace the previous Women's Division and Women's Bureau, dating back to 1916. Its purpose is to encourage more women to participate in Democratic political organizations and provide them with information and techniques to make it possible for them to work as equals with men at all political levels. Functions include preparing and distributing political techniques materials, assisting in building political organizations, and aiding and encouraging women to seek both public and party office.

National Federation of Republican Women, 1625 I Street NW., Washington, D.C. 20006. Founded 1938. The objectives are to promote an informed electorate through political education, to increase the effectiveness of women in the cause of good government through active political participation, to facilitate cooperation among women's Republican clubs, to foster loyalty to the Republican Party and to promote its ideals, to support objectives and policies of the Republican National Committee, and to work for the election of the Republican Party's nominees. Membership: 500,000 women in 50 States, the Commonwealth of Puerto Rico, and the District of Columbia.

National Woman's Party, 144 Constitution Avenue NE., Washington, D.C. 20002. Established 1913 for suffrage for women through the adoption of the Federal Suffrage Amendment; reorganized in 1921 for equal rights for women in all fields. Its immediate purpose is to secure the adoption of the Equal Rights for Women Amendment to the National Constitution and equal rights for women in the international field. It is affiliated with the World Woman's Party and with the International Council of Women.

Republican National Committee, Women's Division, 1625 I Street NW., Washington, D.C. 20006. Founded 1918 to give women a voice in the councils of the Republican National Committee. Its basic objectives are to coordinate the activities of women in the Republican Party to achieve a maximum effectiveness from their efforts; to encourage their participation in party work and in seeking public office as candidates; and to promote equal recognition of women with men at all levels of party organization, to develop leadership among Republican women, and to keep women informed of party activities and current issues.

Woman's National Democratic Club, 1526 New Hampshire Avenue NW., Washington, D.C. 20036. Founded 1922. Its purpose is to afford Democratic women an opportunity to obtain information about problems and issues confronting the country and to discuss Democratic ideals and programs, to do educational and community service work, and to hear and meet the Nation's lawmakers and other leaders in domestic and international fields. Membership: 1,550.

Patriotic Organizations

Daughters of the American Revolution, National Society, 1776 D Street NW., Washington, D.C. 20006. Established 1890. Objectives are historic preservation, promotion of education, and patriotic endeavor. National Headquarters, Washington, D.C., Americana Museum with 28 period rooms and genealogical library open to the public daily. Membership: Approximately 186,000 in nearly 3,000 local chapters throughout the United States.

Disabled American Veterans Auxiliary, 3725 Alexandria Pike, Cold Spring, Ky. 41076. Established 1922. Its purpose is to uphold and maintain the Constitution and laws of the United States, to advance the interests and work for the betterment of all wounded, injured, and disabled veterans and their families. Membership is composed of wives, widows, mothers, daughters, sisters, granddaughters, and grandmothers of disabled veterans of World Wars I and II and the Korean conflict, and disabled women veterans. Membership: Approximately 35,000.

Ladies Auxiliary to the Veterans of Foreign Wars of the United States, 406 West 34th Street, Kansas City, Mo. 64111. Founded 1914. Its objectives are fraternal, patriotic, and educational. Major programs include volunteer work in Veterans Administration and other hospitals, and welfare activities for veterans and their dependents. Membership: 400,000.

United Daughters of the Confederacy, 328 North Boulevard, Richmond, Va. 23220. Established 1894. Its purpose is historical, benevolent, educational, and social. Membership: Approximately 36,000. (Membership restricted to women who are descendants of Confederate veterans of the War Between the States.)

Farm and Rural Organizations

American Farm Bureau Federation, Women's Committee, Room 1000, Merchandise Mart, Chicago, Ill. 60654. Its objective is to assist in an active, organized way in carrying forward the program of the American Farm Bureau Federation; to promote, strengthen, and assist the development of the business, economic, social, educational, and spiritual interests of the farm families of the Nation; and to develop agriculture. Membership: 1,703,908.

Country Women's Council, U.S.A., c/o Mrs. Homer A. Greene, Chairman, Greene Acres, Tutwiler, Miss. 38963. Founded 1939. This Council is a coordinating group made up of representatives of four national and some 82 regional and State societies in the United States which are constituent members of the Associated Country Women of the World. Its purpose is to effect a closer association among these United States groups in carrying out the aims and programs of the Associated Country Women of the World in furthering friendship and understanding among the country women of the world, in improving their standard of living, and in representing them in international councils. Membership: 3 million.

National Extension Homemakers Council, c/o Mrs. Wilmer Smith, Route 1, Wilson, Tex. 79381. Founded 1936. Its purpose is to strengthen and develop adult education in home economics through the Cooperative Extension Service of the U.S. Department of Agriculture and the land-grant colleges; to provide opportunity for homemakers to pool their judgment for the improvement of home and community life; and to offer a means by which homemakers may promote extension projects important in the protection and development of the American home. Membership: Approximately 1 million.

Woman's National Farm and Garden Association, Inc., c/o Mrs. Nelson B. Sackett, President, 860 Park Avenue, New York, N.Y. 10021. Founded 1914. Its purpose is to stimulate interest in the conservation of natural resources and an appreciation of country life; to work for improvement of rural conditions; to promote good relationships between farm and city women; to help women and girls through scholarships and expert advice to obtain the best available training in agriculture, horticulture, and related professions, and to develop opportunities for women so trained; to stimulate and make available to members opportunities for the marketing of farm and garden products; and to cooperate with national and international groups of women with similar interests. Membership: 9,000.

Labor Organizations

The Bureau of Labor Statistics of the U.S. Department of Labor, in its "Directory of National and International Labor Unions in the United States, 1967," includes a table listing of the unions that report membership by sex. (See table 36 of this handbook for unions reporting 25,000 or more women members.)

American Federation of Labor–Congress of Industrial Organizations (AFL–CIO) Auxiliaries, 815 16th Street NW., Washington, D.C. 20006. Established December 1957 by merger of the former American Federation of Women's Auxiliaries of Labor and National C.I.O. Auxiliaries. Composed of women from families of men in a trade union affiliated with the AFL–CIO. Its purpose is to further the program of the AFL–CIO; to foster organizing of the unorganized members of union families and to educate them in the benefits of trade unionism; to aid in securing better schools and instructors; to abolish child labor; to promote legislation which benefits workers and their families; and to promote social and cultural activities. Membership: 50,000.

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Bibliography on American Women Workers

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BIBLIOGRAPHY ON AMERICAN WOMEN WORKERS

This bibliography covers principally publications of current interest concerning women as workers and citizens. It was prepared in response to numerous requests for reference materials pertaining to women's participation in employment and other activities outside the home. Since it is based primarily on materials utilized in the course of research work and is not the result of a complete review of the literature in the field, the bibliography is of necessity limited. It includes references with varying conclusions and opinions, and does not constitute endorsement of any single point of view.

Wherever possible, the references have been classified according to their primary subject matter. Those which are not specialized are shown under "General."

The topical sections of the bibliography are:

General
Commissions on the Status of Women
Counseling and Guidance
Education and Training
Family Status and Responsibilities of Women Workers
Historical Development
International
Special Groups of Women
Standards and Legislation Affecting Women
Union Organization
Volunteers
Women as Workers
Reports of Conferences, Meetings, and Commissions
Speeches
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Unless otherwise stated, U.S. Government publications may be obtained from the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402, or are available at depository libraries.

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